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THE STUDY OF EXPERIMENTAL PEDAGOGY IN GERMANY

FOURTH ARTICLE

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We have already learned of the daily fluctuations in psychical energy and have drawn conclusions from the fact that one of its maxima falls in the morning and another in the afternoon. The old way of dividing the time of instruction between the two parts of the day seemed to us more advantageous than the newer usage which imposes on the pupil five hours of such instruction during the morning. The grain should be cut when it is ripe. The school ought to utilize the psychical energy of the pupil at the right time, that is, in the afternoon also when it reaches its second maximum, as well as in the morning. No less ought the psychical energy be spared at the right time. For this reason we recommended instruction periods of 45 minutes with 15 minutes' intermission. In like manner we demanded a shortening or a transformation of the home-work. As in all these demands the hygienic point of view was uppermost, so our present article serves primarily the didactic. From the investigations as to the change in psychical energy during the day, there arises an especial problem for the teacher.

It is clear, of course, that, in determining the sequence of subjects in which a pupil is instructed during the day, proper regard must be paid to the course of psychical energy. The

experienced teacher will assign his pupils easier subjects when their psychical energy is at an ebb. He will reserve the presentation of more difficult subjects until it is, so to speak, high-tide, i. e., when the energy is at the high points of the day. Inasmuch, therefore, as, on the average, the psychical energy is comparatively low at 8 o'clock, rises about 9 o'clock and reaches its maximum toward 11:00, the best arrangement of three subjects of unequal difficulty would be to set the easiest for 8:00, the next in difficulty at 9:00 and the hardest last. By the hardest would be meant the subject that consumed the most psychical energy of the pupils, i. e., fatigued them the most.

An objection might be raised against this arrangement, namely, that not the relative state of psychical energy should be decisive in the assignment of subjects, but rather the absolute fatigue of the pupils should be taken into account. The latter continues to increase from hour to hour. At the end of the fourth hour the pupils are in such a fatigue-narcosis that their mental effectiveness, certainly the value of that which they would have accomplished under such circumstances, is reduced to zero. The hardest subject, therefore, must always be placed at the beginning of the school-day in order to get the full value of the fresh energy of the pupils. The remaining subjects would have to follow according to the diminishing degree of effort which they would demand.

The principle of arrangement is directly opposed to the one previously mentioned. In the case of the new proposal it is assumed, first, that the effects produced on the pupils by successive hours of instruction are cumulative and, second, that work performed during fatigue is without educational value. The latter view is in accordance with the general opinion and is correct. Kraepelin and his students have been able to confirm it by countless interesting laboratory experiments. Kraepelin worked with students and assistants by having the subjects of his experiments add numbers of one figure which were arranged under one another in specially prepared blanks. When the sum passed a hundred, the hundred was dropped and the addition was continued with the remaining units. Every five minutes

a signal was given. Then the calculator drew a line under the number last added. It was thus seen how many figures were added in every five minutes by each person. Kraepelin often had these experiments continued for hours. He thus created for himself a means of detecting, through the lessening or increase of the number added, the effects of fatigue, as well as of the inserted periods of recreation. He was concerned exclusively with the number of figures added in the unit of time. The quality of the result in this sort of a test was disregarded. The conclusions gained through this simple procedure are extremely instructive. Kraepelin has given the most comprehensive account of the experiments in his article, "*Die Arbeitskurve*."¹ The abscissae mark the periods of time over which the experiments extend: the ordinates indicate how many numbers were added within each period. The curve in question starts with higher ordinate-values only to fall immediately. Such sudden mountings followed by a speedy drop recur throughout the curve. In this we recognized the effort of the will to collect oneself, the impulse which can be maintained on an even level only a short time and just in such conditions of fatigue is often repeated. After that initial drop due to the abatement in the will-tension, the curve mounts gradually again until far above the original height. In this fact the influence of practice, which is the most powerful counter-influence against the effects of fatigue, is disclosed. While the latter, as soon as they set in, lower the level of achievement, i. e., lessen the number of figures added, practice has the tendency constantly to heighten this level. Furthermore, this takes place only up to a certain limit. For the higher the level already reached by practice, the less effect does the continuation of the practice have in the way of raising the level further. "With rising level of practice," we may say, "the capacity for practice gradually decreases."²

We have heard that the work-curve (*Arbeitskurve*) at first rises under the influence of practice, but if one continues the adding without stopping, the curve begins to sink, at a slight

¹ In Wundt's *Philosophische Studien*, Vol. XIX, 1902.

² Kraepelin, *Psychologische Arbeiten*, Vol. I, pp. 652, 674.

rate at the start, but later more and more abruptly. This is the effect of fatigue. Were it not for this, the height of the ordinates would have to increase the longer one worked, because of the effect of practice. This, however, does not take place, but the work-curve falls if one continues to work; it not only falls, but it falls more and more abruptly. The conclusion is obvious: *The practice-value of a work becomes smaller the longer the fatiguing activity continues.* Fatigue diminishes more and more the return to be got from practice.³ Here we have the experimental proof of the sentence with which we began, that work performed during fatigue is without educational value.

It is worth while to dwell a little longer on the experiments of Kraepelin and his pupils. We want to be told what form the curves assume when the work of adding is resumed, say after a rest of 24 hours. From the beginning the curves are higher than before and, the time-period remaining the same, they remain in all their stages raised above the corresponding level of the preceding curves. Herein is revealed that psycho-physical relationship upon which all educability (*Bildsamkeit*), to use Herbart's word, rests. That is, practice leaves lasting traces in the life of the mind, while fatigue is always completely overcome by sleep and nourishment. Consequently the effects of practice increase from experiment to experiment. Fatigue on the contrary is produced anew each time by work. The work-achievement begins each time therefore on a higher level and maintains itself there until the gradually developing fatigue lowers it again.⁴ The new curves are distinguished from the earlier not only by their higher position but by their form. The second, third, fourth, etc., curves become more and more even. We already know that they must rise more evenly. This is the expression of the practice already acquired, which admits of little gain through further practice. But the curves fall more evenly and more gradually, i. e., fatigue also does not operate so powerfully as the experiments continue. We gain therefore the noteworthy

³ According to the experiments of Rivers; see Kraepelin, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 652.

⁴ Kraepelin, *op. cit.*

result that, "with increasing practice not only the capacity for practice but also susceptibility to fatigue diminishes."

Finally, from the above-named experiments not much light is thrown on the effect of the interval of rest. All the factors which have developed during the preceding activity are subject to the changing effect of the intervals, but they are not all thus subject during the same period of time, nor in the same way. Our psycho-physical organism assumes for every activity a certain tendency to persist. The psychical rollers and wheels are ready, even after a cessation of the activity, at once to go on humming again with the same momentum. If the interval is short, the impulsion outlasts the interruption of the work, or at any rate only a part of the impulse is lost. Amberg⁵ was able to show that a fifteen-minute pause after a half-hour's adding left no trace of this impulse. It was otherwise in case of a pause of only five minutes; from the unexpectedly large number added on resumption of the work, it was seen how favorably the impulse continued to operate in lightening the work. Whoever wishes to interrupt but not discontinue a task must avoid too long pauses, provided fatigue is not too great. The little fatigue is overcome by a short pause and the inner disposition of the organism is maintained. If the latter is allowed to disappear through a longer interval, then revenge comes through the relatively low values of the newly begun work.

We have just noted that the traces of fatigue are very quickly obliterated by a short interval of rest. This is true of fatigue, resulting from experiments, or in general of the temporary fatigue due to work, which we may call "occasional" fatigue. The day's fatigue, of course, is not stayed by intervals of rest, but takes its indicated course, which is determined by the curve of psychical energy. This work-fatigue has its origin in the fact that the blood-paths are filled with the products of decomposition from the working nerves. Thereby the activity of the latter is more and more paralyzed. But the products of assimilation are quickly separated from the blood as soon as the intense

⁵ *Ibid.*; also Kraepelin, "Ermüdungsmessungen," *Archiv für Physiologie*, Vol. I.

activity ceases. Fatigue of this sort is not dangerous but only, as it were, a warning-signal of the organism to avoid premature exhaustion of one's powers. Such exhaustion or permanent fatigue would result only if the fatigue-paralysis is not heeded but one continues to work in the same way and with the same intensity. Meumann reports that the blood-pressure of many of his subjects after two or three hours' work fell so much that one might readily call it heart-failure. Here we have the type of injurious over-exertion.

It is evident that with greater degrees of fatigue, the intervals of rest which removes its traces must be longer. After a half-hour's learning of "non-sense syllables," for instance, the pauses of five minutes which were so advantageous after a half-hour's adding, would be too short. The fifteen-minutes interval proves better (Amberg). To be sure, the condition of stimulation, with its tendency to carry over the level of achievement of the preceding activity to the new, disappears. But in this case, there disappear now for the first time the traces of fatigue-paralysis which had counterbalanced not only the supporting influences of the stimulation, but also the increasing effects of practice.

Fortunately the gain resulting from practice (of weeks, yes, months) can never fully vanish. The leveling power of the intervals can weaken it more or less. There occurs at first a speedy, later a gradual loss of practice, but a residue of practice always persists. The energy vanishes quickly after the cessation of activity, fatigue more slowly; on the contrary, the results of practice and especially of habit remain under certain conditions weeks or months.

These circumstances explain the change in the form of the work-curve after the inserted intervals. We have already studied this form on the assumption of longer interruptions which would not pass as "intermissions" in the accepted sense. Its appearance after intervals of rest depends on the length of the latter. Before the interval, the fatigue-effects had stifled more and more the practice-effects. Since under the restoring influence of the interval of rest the fatigue-paralysis diminishes, the level of achievement begins to rise and the ordinates marking the quantity of

work, which had gone far down, increase again. If the interval was long enough greatly to reduce the fatigue-products and not too long so as to permit a considerable loss of practice, the ordinates on account of the unimpaired practice-gain mount higher than during the entire previous activity, the higher, the more favorable the interval. It follows that there must be a most favorable interval. It is such as permits the excess of the practice-result over the fatigue effect to reach its maximum. Up to this point, the capacity for work is impaired by the last traces of fatigue. According to Kraepelin's experience the length of the most favorable interval is affected in no way, or at most but slightly, by the duration of the preceding work. It does, however, vary for different persons within very wide limits, reaching from a quarter of an hour to more than an hour. There is no better test by which to determine one's liability to fatigue than to establish what is his most favorable interval. The above-described experiments deserve to be heeded by every schoolman, not only for theoretical reasons because they analyze in a masterly fashion the elements of work, but for practical reasons as well on account of the important conclusions as to the effects of intervals of rest. These observations give a clue also for the deciding of the question which we had left unsettled.

The question was whether the capacity of the pupils follows the curve of mental energy, i. e., increases until 11:00 and then abruptly falls, rising again in the afternoon, or whether the school-fatigue of the pupils becomes greater from hour to hour so that their capacity continually decreases in the successive hours of the day. Kraepelin misled by the frightful fatigue-results of hours of adding, was formerly inclined to the latter view.⁶ But his more recent experiments concerning the restoring effect even of short intervals (of a minute) are opposed to the pessimism of this view. School-instruction affords an abundance of such brief pauses. Moreover as Gustav Richter, the director of the gymnasium in Jena, has emphasized,⁷ it is quite a different matter if an experimenter busies himself for two or three hours

⁶ Kraepelin, *Ueber geistige Arbeit*, 1894.

⁷ G. Richter, *Unterricht und geistige Ermüdung*, 1895.

with a monotonous adding, than when a pupil lives through the various situations of instruction. If one lets drops of water fall for two hours on the same spot of the hand, there results an almost unbearable pain and diseased inflammation of the skin. If, however, one uses the hands for the same length of time in all sorts of occupation, alternating with one another, the fatigue is hardly noticed.

After all, the saying that recreation lies in change alone, is not so certain as the practical schoolmen are fond of believing. The nerve specialists dispute it. Change of work, says Kraepelin, dispels only the feeling of ennui in which one feels tired of a thing. This subjective feeling of fatigue has nothing to do with real fatigue which springs from the consumption of physical energy. True (objective) fatigue, i. e., deterioration of the blood by decayed material in case of a high degree of exhaustion of the strength-supply (vitality), always involves a lowering of achievement. In a condition of ennui, i. e. of a non-active, or of an unconcentrated attention, the power of achievement can even increase, according to the communications of Rivers. It is a question whether true fatigue yields to change as it is certain that a change in activity removes the feeling of ennui. Just because fatigue is a general condition of the nervous system, it must, according to Kraepelin, be increased by every continuation of work, no matter whether it follows in the same or in a new direction.

It is possible, of course, that in school circles too much reliance has been placed on the recreative effects of change, mere change: that the short pauses in instruction, the intervals and other factors which have yet to be emphasized serve better to obviate exhaustion than change. But the argument which we have just listened to does not hold. One forgets the old saying, "He who proves too much proves nothing." The argument is intended to prove that recreation does not consist in change, but it actually proves that there can be no recreation at all. For activity in the energetic sense, i. e., activity of the nervous system, is a mere being awake, a conscious activity, as such. So viewed,

every pause is nothing but a change in activity. A "recreative" effect of pauses would be unthinkable.

In fact, we have here a dark corner in our fatigue-psychology. Its advocate asserts that fatigue advances continuously and uninterruptedly even through the mere being awake. How, then, can the capacity for work ever rise again when once, as the result of any activity, it has fallen? How can its further decline be averted for even a short time? And yet we know most certainly and the physiologists prove it in countless experiments, that after higher degrees of fatigue, every long pause produces a considerable rise in the much-lowered capacity for work, which counterbalances the loss of practice and the diminution of momentum, so that in spite of the interruption, more is accomplished in the entire time than if the work went on continuously.

Here facts stand over against assertions. The physiologists teach us that fatigue constantly increases. A series of facts teaches us that the lowered capacity for work can be raised. Another set of facts teaches us that the curve of psychical energy describes during the day the form of a wave. At this point a warning against a certain dogmatism of fatigue-physiology will not be without its justification.

Let us consider further the pertinent facts. From Kraepelin's experiments it appears not only that practice counteracts *existing* fatigue, but also that with every increased degree of practice, the susceptibility to fatigue decreases. This result is gratifying from a pedagogical point of view. To it corresponds the fact that the value of the pupils' achievement, in spite of incipient fatigue, does not necessarily decrease during the same hour of instruction, although it may do so. The bad thing about it is that under the counteracting effects of fatigue the capacity for practice is also reduced, so that instruction fails of its object to promote mental progress.

The second fact is gratifying from a hygienic and pedagogical point of view. For it precludes to a certain degree the development within a period of instruction of a further condition of fatigue precisely through the advance in practice. That is to say, the *activity* into which the pupil is brought through the drill

of instruction, has the effect of staying fatigue, just as the small natural intervals in instruction have the effect of removing fatigue. This consideration also renders the assumption that fatigue in school must constantly increase, to say the least, not quite self-evident.

Kraepelin has advanced the same point of view in fine words, which deserve to be pondered. He writes, "It is certain that practice lessens the liability to fatigue. The only proper means, therefore, of preventing the appearance of fatigue-phenomena is just the work which itself produces fatigue. If, then, at the first show of signs of fatigue the school should discontinue the work, it is to be feared that it would also sacrifice the practice-effect of the work. Instead, therefore, of reducing the liability to fatigue, the instruction would lead to a weakening. The liability to fatigue would remain permanently in its original status and the growing multitude of weaklings would anxiously vibrate between short periods of work and long periods of rest."⁸

We have further an indirect proof that with intelligent instruction the pupils can remain fresh and capable of work even in the third and fourth periods. Because fatigue lowers the practice-value of what is accomplished, and increasing practice all the more so, the pupils would of necessity make less progress in the third and fourth hours in proportion as their fatigue had increased in those hours. But it has been observed that the subjects taught in the third and fourth hours have shown such failure to make progress.

Finally, at the close of the recitation periods, simple and homogeneous tests such as adding of digits, copying of texts, dictation, etc., were set for the pupils in order to observe from the results of their work the condition of fatigue. We shall have presently to consider more closely such fatigue-measurements. They are not so simple nor so unambiguous as has been believed. All these subordinate factors, practice, impetus, stimulus, which Kraepelin has so carefully described and which counteract or thwart the influences of fatigue, play a part in

⁸ *Zur Ueberbildungsfrage*, pp. 15 f.

these tests. Other entirely unforeseen difficulties also meet us here.

Let one example serve for many. It is certain that the hour from one to two brings the minimum of psychical energy. This relatively low level persists if dinner, which in Germany generally ends about this time, should have in the meantime removed the fatigue of the children; nevertheless, it happens that many pupils, in order to have leisure for playing later on, undertake their home work at this unsuitable hour. One would expect that the work produced at this time would be, in general, of little value. It was with this expectation that Dr. Friedrich Schmidt of Würzburg⁹ compared the same home lessons which were done by school children in the hours named (1:00 to 2:00) with the work of other children who studied from 5:00 to 6:00, 6:00 to 7:00, 7:00 to 8:00, or 8:00 to 9:00. He found to his surprise that the tasks completed from 1:00 to 2:00 compared very favorably when they were of a more mechanical character, as for example, the copying of easy school material (narratives with a moral, or multiplication, or division with numbers of more than one figure. The hour from one to two showed itself to be injurious in the case of more intellectual work; for example, the writing of German compositions on such themes as, "How far is fire a benefactor of mankind?"

The above example teaches us that not every task is an equally good test of the fluctuation of psychical energy and, by analogy, of the phenomena of fatigue. The degrees of modification in the psychical energy escape detection in one set of exercises and only become apparent in others. For this reason we ought to regard the experiments to determine the fatigue of pupils through all sorts of test work with due caution.

It is surprising, to say the least, what Laser,¹⁰ who, at the time, could have known nothing of the periodicity of psychical energy, has told us from the results of his experiments. He made a test of the increase of fatigue after the successive hours

⁹ Friedrich Schmidt, "Experimentelle Untersuchungen über die Hausarbeiten des Schulkindes," *Archiv für die gesamte Psychologie*, Band III, 1904.

¹⁰ Laser, "Ueber geistiger Ermüdung beim Schulunterricht."

of instruction by having the pupils do simple examples for ten minutes after each hour. The number of the computed digits, therefore the capacity for work, proved lowest in the first hour. The capacity for work increased up to the third or fourth hour, and decreased again in the fourth or fifth. As a result, we get not a curve of increasing fatigue reckoned from the first hour on, but such a course of the capacity for achievement as we could derive in advance from the day's curve of the psychical energy.

I mention further the result gained by G. Richter¹¹ who set for his pupils in the intermissions between lessons algebraic problems, for example, $13a - 4b - (5c + 2a) - (5c + 2a) - (6a - 4b) - 2c = ?$, or dictated to them the forms of the Greek conjugations — *δίδοται*, *δίδωται*, etc. His conclusion is that, on the whole, the pupils' capacity for work during the time of instruction maintains itself well. A lessening of the mental elasticity is observed only in the fifth hour and yet this was far from being a condition of exhaustion.

Ebbinghaus¹² has examined most carefully the question as to whether the pupils become more and more fatigued in the course of instruction. His results also refute the pessimistic view to which physicians here are readily inclined.

Ebbinghaus reckoned at the start with the possibility that the fatigue-tests, according to the kind of testwork, might show now one and now another result. On this account he used a threefold method during different school days at the beginning and end of the school periods. The first method consisted of a test of direct memory. He tested to what number of terms the pupils could repeat, offhand, rows of figures which the teacher was to read to them but once. In the second test Ebbinghaus had the pupils solve for ten minutes easy problems in addition and multiplication. In this case it was a question primarily of the firmness and quickness with which associations were made. The last test was directed toward the intelligence, or to speak more correctly, toward the supplementing power of imagination

¹¹ Cf. above, p. 639.

¹² Ebbinghaus discusses this in his *Zeitschrift für Physiologie und Psychologie der Sinnesorgane*, Bd. XIII, S. 401 ff.

possessed by those examined. Simple texts with omitted syllables or words were given to be filled out. The test as to direct memory furnished no result as to the question of fatigue. It was rather true that after the fourth or fifth hour the numbers remembered increased than that fatigue visibly decreased. In the case of the solution of the arithmetical problems the mistakes increased from the end of the first up to the fifth hour, but only to a small degree, 3 to 4 per cent. Also the combination-test in the case of pupils of the middle and upper classes brought to light no higher degrees of fatigue, but only such as on account of the counter-influence of practice remain without harm. The number of the syllables supplied increased from the first to the fourth hour without any noticeable increase in the per cent of mistakes. In the fifth hour a noticeable deterioration first showed itself. For this reason the younger pupils fared worse in the combination-test. In their case the result at the end of four periods of instruction was only two-thirds of that shown at the beginning of the day. The necessity of protecting the younger and therefore untrained pupils becomes apparent. Equally clear is it also that the psychical energy of the middle and higher years is adequate for a four-hour morning session. Here again we have a confirmation of what already might have been inferred from Kraepelin's observations. The factors of recreation and practice which a well-regulated instruction affords as well as the intermissions placed between the hours of instruction, effectively counteract for long periods of time the increase of fatigue.

Herewith we have to some extent solved the problem which we set for the present discussion, the problem of the recitation programme. In drafting such a programme one may assume that the pupils during four hours of instruction remain fresh enough for each subject. The subjects themselves must therefore be arranged in such a way that their order will correspond to the course of psychical energy. The harder subjects, therefore, belong in the hours of greater energy. Whether and to what extent indeed this principle of arrangement can be experimentally carried out we shall learn in our next article.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

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HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE JOINT OR NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH, WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE CONFERENCE OF 1908

Any fair-minded teacher who has considered at all carefully the development of the study of English in the past twenty years must admit at the outset of any discussion that our present troubles, however difficult to meet, are far less complicated than those overcome. The distracting conditions incident to a lack of uniformity in college entrance requirements, conditions which seriously hampered effective class work in secondary schools, have been greatly improved by the establishment of a uniform entrance requirement. Moreover, the uncertainty attending the varying interpretation of this uniform requirement by the examiners of individual colleges has been practically obviated by the establishment of the College Entrance Examination Board. By these means much of the lack of definition which formerly made our teaching difficult has been remedied.

For these improved conditions, thanks are due principally to three agencies: the New England Commission of Colleges on Entrance Requirements, the National Education Association, and the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. In 1888 the New England Commission of Colleges, in its work of establishing some degree of

uniformity in entrance requirements, set a list of books for reading as the preparation for the examination in English. In going about this work, the commission used the method of investigation since employed in every important handling of entrance requirements—the now familiar “conference” made up of representatives from colleges and preparatory schools.

The plan finally adopted in 1892 by the National Education Association, after wide discussion of the whole confused subject of entrance requirements, was based upon this New England plan. This association appointed the now memorable Committee of Ten, to which it gave power to call conferences of persons whose position and reputation entitled them to be called experts in some one study in the preparatory schools, every section, interest, and school of thought to be represented. It was this method of inquiry which gave lasting value to the work of the committee.

The Conference on English met at Vassar College in December, 1892, and organized with Mr. Samuel Thurber as chairman, and Professor George L. Kittredge as secretary. Upon the principles laid down in the report of this conference have been based practically all subsequent efforts to systematize and unify work in English. Yet as we study the wise and far-reaching suggestions there embodied, the high standards erected, and contrast them with the results attained after fifteen years of conscientious effort to live up to these ideals, we wonder whether, by emphasizing too much certain suggestions, we have not blurred the intention of the whole. The conference, in delivering its report, must have wished to add, in self-defense, the words of Captain Cuttle: “The bearings of these remarks lies in the applications of ‘em.” It may be worth while, at the outset of an effort to see clearly present conditions, to summarize at length the conclusions embodied in the report before passing to our “applications” of them.¹

¹ The order of this summary does not accord with that of the report; separated suggestions have been brought together, and the language is only in part that of the original. Nevertheless, it is believed that the changes made in arrangement and phrasing in no way misrepresent the position of the conference.

The main objects of the teaching of English in schools seem to be two: (1) to enable the pupil to understand the expressed thoughts of others and to give expression to thoughts of his own; (2) to cultivate a taste for reading, to give the pupil some acquaintance with good literature, and to furnish him with the means of extending that acquaintance. In composition work the pupil should from the earliest years be encouraged to furnish his own material, expressing his own thoughts in a natural way, the exercises to be practical rather than technical. As early as possible material for narration and description should be suggested by the pupil's observation or personal experience. Throughout the school course composition should be taught by unremitting practice accompanied by careful and appropriate criticism. Every thought which the pupil expresses, whether orally or on paper, should be regarded as a proper subject for criticism as to language. Thus every lesson in geography or mathematics may and should become a part of the pupil's training in English. There can be no more appropriate moment for a brief lesson in expression than the moment when the pupil has something which he is trying to express. Grammar and rhetoric should both be taught, but *in the main* incidentally and in close relation with the work of the pupil himself and the works he reads. Formal grammar should not be taught before the thirteenth year of the pupil's life; the main principles should then be laid down in a year's course of three hours a week. Formal rhetoric should be presented in a one-year elementary course in the third year of the high school, but the work done beforehand in composition should have been such as to make such a course a codification of principles already supplied in practice. Especial care should be taken that rhetoric is not studied by itself and for itself. The conference "does not contemplate an examination in formal rhetoric for admission to college."

In the high-school work in literature the pupil should read certain masterpieces not fewer in number than the list set by the New England Commission; such books each to represent so far as possible some period, tendency, or type of literature, the whole

number to represent with as few gaps as possible the course of English literature from the Elizabethan to the present day; of these a considerable number to be of a kind to be read by the student cursorily and by himself; a limited number may be read in the classroom under the direction of the teacher. Parallel and subsidiary reading is to be encouraged, and the investigation of pertinent questions in literary history and criticism. Frequent tests should be given upon the books read alone and upon the parallel reading and the investigation above mentioned, the objects being threefold: (1) to bring out the pupil's knowledge; (2) to test his ability to methodize his knowledge; (3) to test his ability to write clearly and concisely. The conference "doubts the wisdom of requiring for admission to colleges set essays (e. g., on the books prescribed)—essays the chief purpose of which is to test the pupil's ability to write English. It believes there are serious theoretical and practical objections to estimating a student's power to write a language on the basis of a theme composed not for the sake of expounding something that he knows or thinks, but merely for the sake of showing his ability to write." The alternative suggested is questions upon subsidiary reading in literary history or upon definite passages taken from the books read.

History of English literature is to be taught incidentally; mechanical use of manuals of literature is to be avoided. In the fourth year of the high school an attempt may be made to give the pupil a view of our literature as a whole, but this instruction should accompany a chronologically arranged sequence of authors. The history of the English language cannot perhaps at present (1893) be taught extensively in the high schools, but the conference recommends (1) a study of the history and geography of the English race so far as these illustrate the development of the language; (2) phonetics, to give a clear idea of the general causes giving English the peculiar value of its vowel symbols; (3) word-composition; (4) elements of English vocabulary to illustrate the political, social, intellectual, and religious development of the race; (5) changes in the meaning of words, to be taught incidentally.

The high school may deal with dialects and literary language and with decay of inflections.

Perhaps, to emphasize the wisdom of the conference it would have been well to put the last group of recommendations in a less conspicuous position. To those of us who have wrestled with the problem of imparting knowledge of the most rudimentary kind to the average high-school pupil, the ideal suggested in the above list makes us long for the official recognition of what Lord Acton calls, "a rational possible end, limited by many antagonistic claims, and confined to what is reasonable, practicable, and just." Yet it is surely clear that the intention visible everywhere in the report is that teaching should not be divorced from common-sense, that the teacher should be the judge of what is possible under existing conditions. One may add, moreover, that branches called by even such high-sounding names may be bent down by a helpful hand until even a very small person may gather the fruit.

It was clearly intended that the pupil should learn to read books primarily because a reading habit is a pleasant and profitable thing. This fact is apparent in spite of the suggestion not summarized, that references should be traced and difficult passages understood. It was as evidently intended that composition should be a natural expression of the pupil's thought, not a rehash of the books read. It was nowhere assumed or set down that examinations should be confined to a printed list of books, or that proficiency to express himself on the subject-matter of these books should be the test of the pupil's skill in composition. It is a consideration of these things which leads one to wonder whether in a search for a "rational possible end," certain suggestions of the committee have not been overemphasized, with a result quite different from that which was designed.

Such were the principles laid down by the report of the Vassar Conference of the Committee of Ten; it remained for some agency to put these ideals into operation, or, at least, to make choice among them, to hit upon some plan which should offer a definite working basis for uniformity. Such action was taken in 1893 by the Association of the Colleges and Preparatory

Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the third agency to which teachers of English are indebted. This association, at the suggestion of President Seth Low, appointed a committee to investigate the question of uniform entrance requirements in English. This committee, composed of five college and five preparatory school representatives, met in New York in February, 1894, and sent out circulars of inquiry to about one hundred colleges and four hundred preparatory schools in New England and the middle states. The answers brought out the facts that the schools demanded a substantially uniform standard, and declared that, whatever course the middle states adopted, it must at least not conflict with the procedure in New England.

As a result of the desire for co-operation with New England, the first joint conference on entrance requirements in English, which met in Philadelphia in May, 1894, was composed of the committee of the Middle States Association, of delegates from the New England Commission of Colleges (Professor Winchester, Professor Cook, and Dean Briggs), and of delegates from the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools (Mr. Tetlow and Mr. Collar). This Conference of 1894 and the succeeding Conference of 1895 prepared the way for the adoption of the uniform requirements which, with slight variations, have since been retained. The action taken, which was based on the suggestions of the Vassar Conference of the Committee of Ten, was conservative, practical, and definite. The list of books required by the New England Commission of Colleges was adopted, but the books were arranged in two groups, one for reading, one for study and practice. In accordance with the demand of the schools for a stable requirement, the list was fixed for three years. Rhetoric was pronounced "useful, but too hard and inflexible for a good examination test;" correction of "bad English," it was voted, should be excluded from the examinations.

It will be noted that the work of this conference and of succeeding conferences is based upon one assumption, the use of a fixed list of English masterpieces as a basis of the work in literature and composition. No matter what the changes in the

makeup of the conferences, no matter how diverse, in the course of years, were the interests represented, this assumption remained the same. It dominated the entire treatment of the study of English and brought forth a distinct method both of study and of examination. This method possessed conveniences that for some years showed as real advantages. The merits of system, of a fixed quantity of work, of a task which, in one aspect, at least, was perfectly definite, the advantages of giving a student a first-hand acquaintance with literature, of a clearly recognized body of subjects for theme work, of convenient texts to work with—all these were apparent at the first. Nevertheless, as the years went on and divergent interests were represented in the conferences, the difficulties of adjustment under the system became onerous. In 1895 a third section of the country was represented by a delegate from the Conference of the Teachers of English of the north-central states; in 1897 delegates from the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the southern states were admitted. The conference at that time consisted of the delegates from the middle states and Maryland, from the Southern Association of Schools and Colleges, from the North Central Association of Teachers of English, and of delegates from two New England bodies—the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and the New England Commission of Colleges on Entrance Examinations. This constituency maintained itself in all the conferences up to 1905, except that in 1902 the delegates from the north-central section were sent by the recently formed Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. In all the conferences up to 1905 action was directed mainly toward clearer definition of requirements and careful revision of the lists for required reading. Even a casual glance through the list from 1895 to 1905 will show how steadily the sorting-out process went on, and will suggest how consistently the objections of teachers resulted in the dropping of certain books.

In looking back over these years, one sees clearly the value of these conferences. The unifying force, the responsibility voluntarily assumed by the men who composed them, the high character of the delegates, the dignity of the interests represented

—all these things make of great importance this movement started by the foresight and energy of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. In a time of confusion and inaction this association acted, and acted with promptness and high intelligence, an intelligence in nothing more conspicuously shown than in securing the co-operation of other bodies important in the educational interests of the country.

In 1905, however, the conference lost something of its representative character by the absence of the delegates from the New England Commission on Entrance Examinations, this commission having, since the successful organization of the College Entrance Examination Board, suspended its work. The representatives from the Commission of Colleges had from the first been a constituent part of the conferences and had brought to the movement the high dignity of the colleges represented by them. It was this Conference of 1905 that adopted the elastic "open list" of forty books for reading in place of the definite ten of the former requirements. This change and the resulting action in New England merely emphasize the difficulties of reconciling the conflicting interests heretofore represented. Those parts of the country where examinations were of little importance had raised a cry of relief from the restricted list of books; it was they who had asked for an "open" list that should provide a greater range of books for the jaded teacher to choose from. The examining colleges, on the other hand, had found that the system had a deadly effect on the training in composition, and on the ability of students to understand and appreciate literature. In their judgment the "open list" merely increased the difficulties of examination without in any way remedying the fundamental objection. This change, then, made in 1905, to satisfy the demands of the non-examining constituency, made the discontent of the other constituency still more active, especially since the important examining interests had had no part in bringing about the change.

The dissatisfaction that was felt in this part of the country at the modifications made by the National Conference of 1905 soon

took form in the organization of a Conference of the New England Colleges on Entrance Requirements in English. This body was the legitimate successor of the Commission of New England Colleges on Entrance Examinations, which had suspended its activities, and it represented as authoritatively the interests of the examining colleges. The immediate result of this action was that most of the colleges made important modifications in the list presented by the National Conference of 1905, and the long-desired uniformity became, as far as New England was concerned, a thing of the past. This body prepared recommendations of a radical character to be presented to the Conference of 1908, the general tenor of which was that less emphasis should be put on minute study of texts and more emphasis on composition. Further evidence of dissatisfaction was given by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which threw over altogether the list of books and adopted a requirement of work in composition on non-literary subjects, with "sight questions" to test a student's power of understanding and appreciating literature. The final expression of the desire of New England that its peculiar needs have more effective representation in the National Conference was the action of the New England Association of Teachers of English, which appointed delegates to go to New York at the time of the meeting of the Conference of 1908, and to make application for membership on behalf of this association.

The presence at this Conference of 1908, which was held in New York on February 21 and 22, of delegates from these two new bodies from New England, in addition to the regular delegates from the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and the application for membership made by these two bodies brought out strikingly the peculiarities of organization that have been inherent in the Joint or National Conference from the beginning. It is a voluntary association composed of delegates from associations which are themselves voluntary, and which, moreover, concern themselves with English only as it is one of many matters that come under their care. It has therefore no constitution, no permanent officers or organi-

zation, and no authority. The result of its deliberations is expressed in a vote that a certain requirement "be recommended to the constituent bodies for adoption." This is the extent of its power. So long, however, as the New England colleges were represented on the conference through delegates from their Commission on Entrance Examinations, they accepted its report at once, and confirmed its action as substantially their requirement. Naturally, therefore, in this part of the country, if not elsewhere, the action of the conference had weight. The organization representing the New England colleges at New York last February was, as has just been noted, to all intents and purposes the legitimate successor of the Commission of Colleges on Entrance Examinations; yet it had to appear as an outsider, and to ask for admission as if the institutions that it represented had never had any standing in the conference. After considerable discussion the delegates representing the New England colleges were admitted—or re-admitted. As for the delegates from the New England Association of Teachers of English, they were invited to take part in the deliberations, but were not given the right to vote. (It is hardly necessary to add that your delegates were made heartily welcome and treated with the utmost courtesy.) These instances are cited to show that, owing to the intermittent organization which the conference maintains, its composition when it meets must be more or less subject to temporary questions of expediency. It is true that, with three delegations from New England on its hands, the Conference of 1908 had had a perplexing problem to deal with. That, however, is not the point. The significant thing is that, in such circumstances it had absolutely no guidance from established and recognized principles. By way of making a good end to this aspect of the conference, let it be noted that at this meeting the necessary preliminary steps were taken for remedying this uncertain condition of affairs.

From the beginning of the sessions of this conference, it was manifest that a desire for change was in the air. The individual members in their daily experience as teachers had already been brought face to face with the fact that the system was not work-

ing itself out in the way designed by its initiators, and they believed that the time had come to make a new statement as to what constitute the fundamentals in the study and teaching of English. It very naturally came to pass, therefore, that an agreement was made to fix a list of books for only one year (1912), to adjourn for a year, and to appoint a committee of five which should investigate the whole question of the entrance requirement in English and report to the individual members of the conference before the adjourned meeting. This action, it is hardly necessary to say, is of the greatest possible importance. Of this committee of five Professor Cross of Yale is chairman. With regard to the list of books selected for 1912, the only points worth noting are that the number of books to be read is reduced from ten to nine, and that three of the *Idylls of the King* are introduced as a welcome alternative to the group of Milton's shorter poems in the list of books for study and practice. Also, from this group "Lycidas" is omitted.

This, however, is merely a record of the votes passed. The value of the meetings was in the frank expression of opinion from men in different parts of the country as to the present condition of things. The belief that the time had come when the conference might propose to its constituent bodies a step greatly in advance of its former action was put with most weight by Professor Scott of the University of Michigan. Thanks to his initiative, the conference discussed with entire candor two propositions—the complete separation of literature and composition, the framing of a requirement in literature which should do away with a fixed list of books. The purpose of the discussion was not so much to reach a result as to indicate the line which the investigations of its committee might profitably take. In other words, from the work of this committee the conference should be able to decide whether the time has come when the old assumption of a list of required books may be dropped and a new requirement worked out based on the principle that composition and literature are distinct things, and that in the study of literature the storing up for examination purposes of information concerning certain books should be minimized, if not altogether

done away with. In the opinion of one of your delegates, the informal views of the members of the conference were favorable to some such a new basis. Further than this they did not commit themselves; it was necessary first to know that such a basis is practical and that it will commend itself as logical and necessary to the teachers of English throughout the country. That information it is the work of the committee of the conference to supply.

The significant thing about the National Conference of 1908, then, is this. It has opened the door for change, and has appealed to the country to find out whether change is desirable, and if so, what change is desirable. Our New England Association of Teachers of English represents a body of opinion characteristic of a community that lives—for better or for worse—under the examination system. Any expression of opinion which those here present may give today will be of value to that committee and to the conference. Here wisdom will be heard and heeded, and it need not cry aloud.

One point remains to be made. Any new scheme that may be adopted must be, like the old scheme, a working agreement that will satisfy the two diverse interests that are represented in the conference. If, however, the new agreement is not to share the fate of the old, it must have some other justification than that of being principally a convenient method of securing uniformity. To endure, it must be grounded on solid educational principles. Whatever merits the old system had as a suggested course of reading, those advantages were largely lost in this part of the country because the examining colleges found it difficult to adjust to their examination system. We all realized the unsatisfactory condition of things, and uttered protests whenever opportunity offered. The guidance given by the Vassar Conference of the Committee of Ten had proved inadequate to our needs, and had been lost sight of. We were in deep woods, bewildered by the crisscrossing of individual blazed trails. Under such circumstances progress was nearly impossible. Here at last, however, is the opportunity for re-orientation. It is our own fault if we do not make the most of it. What we teachers in school and

college, working together, must now do is to frame a new statement of the ideals that should be the basis of preparatory work in English. Such a statement should be inclusive enough to serve as a standard to the men who set examination papers, to the men who edit texts, to the men who fix courses of study, and to all of us in our daily work in the classroom. It should serve as a standard but it should not go so far as to concern itself with details. If some such statement of ideals can be made, it will mean that the colleges, on the one hand, are willing to give up some points on which hitherto they have insisted; and that the schools, on the other hand, accept the responsibilities of a higher standard of work. With a common understanding as to what things are fundamental, the delegates representing New England colleges and schools can, at the meeting of the conference next year, stand unitedly for a requirement that, besides being practical, squares with what is sound in principle.

Plainly, within the next twelvemonth there is much work to be done. Setting aside such important questions as what constitutes a fair examination paper and what constitutes a good edition of a text—and as regards both examination papers and annotated texts of the last fifteen years perhaps the safest word of characterization is the epithet *experimental*—setting these aside, we find ourselves called to the large task of formulating our ideals with a view to action. To take part in such work is in accord with the traditions of the New England Association of Teachers of English. Your Executive Committee, therefore, proposes that one of its standing committees take up a single aspect of the large question, and report to you on it next November. As the Standing Committee of last year indicated in its report, it is obviously inexpedient for this association, a body with no official effective authority, to plan a course of study for either elementary or secondary schools. Work of that sort has already been undertaken in many places by the proper bodies. It has appeared, however, that we might do what no such body with a special task before it is required to do—that is to say, frame a general statement of the principles on which any second-

any course of study should be based. By so doing, we should be performing that part in the larger task for which we are especially suited. Such a report from the association will be a fitting contribution to the work that must be done, if the conference that meets in 1909 is to act wisely and well.

A REVIVAL OF THE MEGALENSIAN GAMES

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The modern young person, though submerged temporarily in a classical atmosphere, is bound, sooner or later, to betray his modernity. The year had, on the whole, been one of serious effort in the Classical Club at Lewis Institute. Besides the Roman Dinner,¹ there had been two illustrated lectures on Greece and Rome, and monthly meetings at which were enacted scenes from classic myth—in short the club had engaged in every appropriate form of activity fitted to keep interest at the white heat. And now, as spring came on, there arose the universal demand for something that might seem more like fun and less like work. A party, a frolic, a dance! In vain we quoted Cicero's statement, "Nemo saltat nisi insanus aut inebrius." A party became inevitable. The time of the Megalensia was chosen, and then, as we groped for some form of entertainment not too much out of harmony with an ideal nor too great an antithesis to our dinner, someone boldly proposed that we celebrate the Megalensian Games.

To transform a great barnlike gymnasium into even a remote representation of the great Circus Maximus, was an appalling task. But while it involved considerable labor and some degree of ingenuity, the result was surprisingly satisfactory. Fortunately the dimensions of the floor space were relatively the same as in the Circus, though reduced to a one-thousandth, and, no doubt, we missed the glamor of foreign marbles and the blue of an Italian sky.

Opposite the entrance the wall was hung with a red curtain perhaps twenty feet wide, and against this rich background the imperial pulvinar was erected, high enough above the floor to be seen by all. It was also completely draped in dark red and decorated with statues of the gods, and contained the throne and

¹ Described in *School Review*, October, 1908.

seats for the Vestals, the priests, and other members of the court party. When they were in their places, this one detail was really a thing of beauty.

To wall the course and give it the proper elliptical shape, a barrier of boards was built and covered with gray carpet paper chalked to represent stonework. Behind this were arranged seats for the spectators. Down the center of the course ran a spina of the same pseudo-masonry, with metae at the ends and shrines bearing eggs to be taken down at each lap of the race. The carceres or stalls were at one end with the editor's box high above them.

There had been the usual excitement attending all performances of the Classical Club, and, as only two hundred tickets could be issued, everything was sold, and by seven o'clock the populace began to arrive. At 8:15 the Circus Maximus opened for business and the crowd filed into the cavea, each receiving at the door a banner of the color of which he was a partisan.

At 8:30 the heralds entered with grave dignity, and after the trumpet calls announced, "I call you to witness a sight which no man living ever saw and no man living will ever see again," a formula appropriate in ancient times only to the Saecular Games but literally true of our performance.

The procession, consisting of forty persons, entered and filed slowly around the Circus, halting before the imperial box while the court, the editor, and his attendants took their places. First came the heralds playing on trumpets, then the two lictors with their fasces, preceding the imperial chariot drawn by four spirited horses—where one is young, it takes only a gay bridle with tassels and tinsel and cockade to transform Bud Smith or Bill Jones into Bucephalus or Pegasus. The emperor, in his royal purple paludamentum, his golden crown, and unsmiling dignity, almost made one forget the semi-burlesque character of the occasion. The editor, a great imperial fellow in a white tunic and blue chlamys, was carried in a gray-draped litter on the shoulders of four sturdy slaves. He was followed by the charioteers in tunics of white, green, red, and blue respectively, driving horses caparisoned in the same colors. The chariots,

made in our own shops by the boys, were in size and form really fair models of the ancient racing car. They were equipped with heavy iron wheels which rumbled like thunder over the hollow gymnasium floor. After the chariots came the Vestals in white, then a band of priests carrying images of the gods, and, last of all, several citizens of high station.

When all were in their places, the charioteers drove up before the editor's box and cast lots, in due form, for position. Then they backed into the stalls and were ready to start. A slave was stationed at each of the metae to record the number of laps by taking down an egg from the shrines. The trumpet gave a blast, and after two dashes for position the editor dropped the mappa and the race was on.

It was one of the wildest sights I ever beheld. The horses threw themselves into the race with such fury that at the first turn one chariot was smashed to bits; one of the charioteers, thrown from his swerving car, disappeared temporarily through the paper masonry while his horses bolted wildly through the rest of the race with the empty chariot. By the fourth lap only two chariots were intact, and the course was strewn with wreckage. The audience was on its feet screaming with laughter and excitement, and not one but had caught enough of a thrill to realize what the circensian races meant to the Roman populace.

At the end of the race but a single battered chariot, with a wildly disheveled driver, was left in the course, and, as the survival of the fittest, he received the palm from the editor and the plaudits of the multitude.

When the splintered fragments had been cleared away, and the runaway steeds captured and driven out, a number of the athletes who have made Lewis famous gave exhibitions of wrestling and running. And then came the gladiators. Three pairs were conducted by the editor in his litter around the entire arena for inspection, halting before the imperial box to cry, "Hail, Caesar, emperor; we, about to die, salute thee!" There was first a myrmillo, heavily armed, and a retiarius with net and trident; second, a Gaul and a German, both in full armor, and last of all a gladiator and a bear. Then the adolescent instinct

for burlesque was given free play, and anything more amusing would be hard to find.

When the heartless multitude had, *pollice verso*, condemned the vanquished to death and the dead bodies had been dragged out in a very realistic manner, and the bloodstains sprinkled with sand, the successful combatants received their rewards at the hand of the emperor. The victors in the various contests then passed in review around the arena.

The recessional was made with great pomp, and contained all the participants except the gladiators who were beyond possible resurrection. As the imperial chariot rounded the *spina*, a Gallic gladiator who had waited for this moment broke from the ranks and aimed a murderous blow at his majesty. Confusion and excitement reigned and the lictors in an excess of zeal battered the would-be assassin over the head so vigorously that he displayed his bumps proudly for days to come.

As the pageant again formed and retired, his battered form, dragged limply between two slaves, formed a fitting tailpiece to this curious display of burlesque and grotesquerie.

Such were the Megalensian Games of 1906, and I have to record that in the remembrance of the *Cena* and the *Ludi* of that year, the "*ignobile volgus*" to this day demand still, as in Juvenal's day, "*Panes et Circenses*."

READING VERSUS TRANSLATING

II. METHODS

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My previous paper on this subject¹ has been taken by some readers to be a plea for the oft-exploded "natural method" of teaching the foreign language entirely without the aid of the mother tongue; it certainly was not so intended. Nothing could be more *natural* and thrifty than to use the language already familiar to both teacher and learner in acquiring a new one. But *as soon as possible* discard the help of the mother tongue; get rid of its intermediary function, and let the learner's mind deal with one language and the thought conveyed by it, as he does when he speaks, reads, hears, his childhood language.

I cannot refrain from harking back to the theme of the previous paper with an anecdote. A bright student of Greek—who has since distinguished himself in college and in literary work—was writing into Greek the sentence, "The general collected vessels in which to ferry his soldiers across the river;" and for *vessels* he wrote *σκευή*—which of course means *vessels*, but hardly the kind in which Greek hoplites could cross the Euphrates. If the student had been trained to visualize *σκευή* as pots and kettles and the like, and *πλοῖα* as ships and boats, the blunder would have been impossible.

As to method there is, of course, one great thing; that is to insist in every way, and by every means, upon the student's thinking in response to the foreign words and word groups, not English words, but pictures, ideas, things, actions—mental images and concepts. Doubtless the lad should be told in the first place that *gladius* means *sword*; but then he should be instructed and trained to think of a sword, and, moreover, of a Roman sword; in all of which our illustrated texts assist. Tell him in so many words that he is to eject the English word from his mind, and

¹ *School Review*, Vol. XV, p. 508.

that *gladius* is henceforth to call to his mind a particular idea and image, just as any other familiar word does.

This must be done thoroughly at the very outset, so that it may become the first mental habit in the study of the language. Here is where most teachers will fail for lack of faith, for the establishment of this habit will require no little time and effort; but the investment will be repaid with heavy interest in a short time, by the speed and grasp attained. The first words and sentences being simple and usually concrete are adapted to the formation of the habit; let such words and phrases be first clearly understood, then practiced by repetition over and over again, until they gain the power swiftly and certainly to call up the corresponding ideas.

Make sure that each student understands his own responsibility for his own success in this task; no one else can do it for him; the teacher rarely has any other test for a pupil's knowledge of the meaning of a foreign word except the ability to give an English equivalent; the pupil alone knows whether or not he is acquiring the power to think his Latin or German directly into ideas. Impress upon the class the necessity of training their own minds by patient and energetic practice from foreign word into thought. Do not hesitate to spend whatever time seems necessary to make the whole idea clear to every student, and also to impress him with its value; he should understand that the plan involves hard work now, and work upon his own responsibility, but will bear rich fruit later, besides illuminating his language-study from the beginning. The psychic reasonableness of the method will appeal to the student; it is simply an effort to get the same mental processes with Latin that the Roman had who knew no other language.

With the young student visual terms will probably in most cases afford the best material for discussion and drill: Such concrete individual terms as *agger*, *miles*, *hasta*, *equus*, *canis*, *domus*, form the best beginning; from these one goes on naturally to rather more complex ideas, such as *pugna*, *impedimenta*, including verb ideas, such as *currunt*, *oppugnant*; and to abstract ideas, such as *auctoritas*, *virtus*, *cultus*, and the like.

But the largest results are obtained in connection not with single words, but rather word groups, including inflected forms in their appropriate relations. The case endings should be the object of special attention, to the end that the student gain a feeling of the force and possibilities of each case; the right method here is thrown into relief by the utterly false, but not uncommon, method of allowing a pupil to translate an ablative or dative at the beginning of a sentence before he knows what the sentence as a whole means; so that his "by, with, from, to, or for," may be quite wrong. Whatever is true of the case endings is true with added force of the verb inflections for mood, tense, person, and number. All should come to have a distinct value to the mind of the student; for every form he should have an intellectual response.

All forms of speech which differ markedly from the English idiom should receive abundant and special attention. The endless difficulty arising from the accusative and infinitive of Latin indirect discourse might be diminished indefinitely if care were taken at the very outset to make a few simple and typical sentences utterly familiar and transparent: the aid of English is necessary here, not only in a sort of translation, but also in the way of parallel forms in English; such expressions as "I declare him to be the wisest man;" "He believed his son to have been guilty of treason," and the like, may be used to prepare the mind for sensing directly the Latin quotations. Nor may anyone hope to achieve perfection easily in this particular task; constructions so diverse from the usual English idiom are not mastered "except by prayer and fasting" on the part of both teacher and pupil. Regarding the use of English the only caution needed is that common to all processes—let it render its service and then be eliminated, and leave the foreign phrase and the thought in sole possession of the mind.

What is true of the regular or syntactical idioms is no less true of individual idiomatic expressions; they also must be learned to the point of complete familiarity and direct perception. The lack of such comprehension reveals itself in fatal inability to interpret the foreign tongue safely. The translator

of a well-known edition of a German work renders "nichts weniger als" almost verbatim, and consequently as falsely as could possibly be; the student must learn to feel "nichts weniger als" not as "nothing less than" but as its opposite, "anything but." How strong is the power of the word-translating vice is shown by the fact that in the above-cited mistranslation the context demanded the rendering "anything but" beyond the question of a doubt.

Much reading aloud of the foreign language is to be desired; this should be used both with new matter, in which occur words and phrases unfamiliar to the student, and also with passages whose meaning he has mastered; in the former case he will often divine the meaning of new words, and even of the passage as a whole, just as in reading our own language we gather the meaning of a strange word from the context. The reading of familiar passages is an excellent drill and perfecting exercise.

Practice in conversation is one of the most effective instruments for quickening the sense for the new language. Any reasonable competence, in question and answer, even in the simplest matter, is proof of the right kind of mental process, for the speed of spoken language does not permit the slow processes of translation. Our actual achievements in the ancient languages do not stand this test. Granted that no one wants to speak Latin nowadays, in America at least, it is still true that a little practice in using sentences orally will far more than pay for itself in cultivating the power of direct sensing of the Latin. Another successful plan is that of reading an easy passage to the class and requiring them to give the sense of it in their own words, either orally or in writing, and either in English, in the early stages, or in the foreign tongue when that is a reasonable demand. The reading should be rapid enough to make it impossible for the student to turn single words into English equivalents, and compel him to get the sense of the passage as a whole if at all.

Committing passages in the foreign language to memory is also a valuable method; possibly the good old method of learning the rules of syntax in Latin was justified on this score, although

in too many cases the rules were to the learner so much sound without sense. The learning of fine passages of prose and verse, especially those in which the student finds a natural interest, trains the pupil to interpret the foreign tongue, and also furnishes him with a store of words, phrases, idioms, and syntactical material. A certain student, in an endeavor to learn to read Greek, dealt so faithfully with the first three or four pages of the *Anabasis* that he found he could repeat it fluently, although he had never set out to commit it; he maintains that the pages thus acquired were an invaluable aid throughout all his earlier work in the language.

"Prose composition," both oral and written, has great power to stimulate and enlarge the power to read the foreign language, as many a student can testify. The main reason seems clear, that the task of expressing an idea in the foreign language brings the foreign words—endings, syntax, and idiom—into the focus of attention; the foreign sentence is the object of endeavor and is deeply impressed upon the mind. After a good exercise in turning English into Greek one finds new significance and shades of meaning in the Greek he reads.

In the more advanced stages, the great secret of success is a lively interest in the thought and feeling of what is read and an ambition to know exactly and appreciate fully what the writer has to communicate. To this end let us no longer degrade the masterpieces of ancient and modern poetry, oratory, drama, fiction, and history to be the mere exercises of syntactical verbalism. Who has not heard Homer and Virgil, Xenophon, Goethe, Schiller, and the rest, used as quarries for grammatical questions to such an extent that their splendid thoughts and emotions were entirely lost to the young readers? How can we expect the young scholar to be eager for direct and complete knowledge of the classics when he has never caught a glimpse of their beauty and value?

What of translating in class, which at present has so large a place? First, much less of it, and that much better done; in other words, far less of the pigeon English that ravages so much of the work in foreign languages. The teacher must indeed

satisfy himself that the pupils really understand what they are reading. To a considerable degree the pupil's ability to read a passage aloud with intelligent emphasis and inflection may be accepted as evidence of his comprehension. But this is not infallible; in cases of doubt let the pupil tell in his own words what the sentence means; possibly it may sometimes be necessary to call for a "literal translation;" of this one must only remember that it is, if necessary, a necessary evil, and should be reduced to lower and lower terms as the pupil advances. We need not hope for a higher ideal of translation as an end in itself, until the young translators get a closer view of the real beauty and significance of the literature they are reading; until they come to realize that translation is never a mere matter of exchanging English words for foreign, each for each, but rather a task calling for all they have of fineness of perception and command of English, and until our schools recognize that only the student who can read the foreign sentence without the intervention of English words is ready to deal seriously with the task of real translation. Real translation is one of the most effective of all forms of English composition. How sad that translation so called is actually so often an exercise in *bad* English.

THE STUDY OF EDUCATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL—*Concluded*

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In the last issue of the *School Review* the writer reviewed the history and present status of secondary instruction in education. It was stated in that connection that there are excellent reasons for a definite recognition of education as a suitable subject of secondary instruction and for its permanent incorporation into representative secondary curricula. In the present article an attempt will be made to substantiate these claims. The reader is asked to consider the question on its inherent merits and apart from all prepossessions arising from tradition and time-honored custom. The entire discussion is based upon the belief that the primary function of the high school is not to prepare for college nor to provide a mere veneering of culture, but to prepare for life in its fulness.

Let us now turn to another phase of the subject before us. Professor Paul Hanus, in *Educational Aims and Educational Values*, classifies the aims of secondary education as vocational, social, and cultural aims. In line with the suggestion thus offered the branches of secondary instruction will here be spoken of as vocational, social, and cultural studies, or subjects. Vocational branches are those which primarily prepare the student for future economic usefulness and develop ability to gain a livelihood. Social studies are those whose chief purpose is to aid and train the student to adjust himself properly to social forces and relations, and to play his part as a member of society in harmony with true and valid principles of social welfare. The cultural subjects are those which primarily cultivate the art of refined enjoyment and develop aesthetic appreciation and skill. Cultural is used here for convenience merely in the limited sense of the word. This is only a

convenient grouping, for every high-school subject has some elements belonging to each class and not a few may be shifted from one group to another simply by a shift of the emphasis in instruction. As the study of education is and has been pursued in secondary schools it is unmistakably a vocational subject. The name normal training by which it is currently designated definitely suggests this fact. But it may be pursued as a social subject equally well, for education is one of the social sciences. As a cultural study in the above sense it is of slight importance. Upon this foundation a critical consideration of the true and ideal status of the study of education in secondary schools will now be undertaken.

In the writer's view education as a social subject has a legitimate claim to a place among the electives in all secondary schools capable of offering electives, and also a like claim to a place among required subjects on the same footing with civics, economics, the later courses in history, and corresponding social subjects. Relative to this more will be said anon. It is believed, however, that under ideal conditions the utilitarian side of the study of education should be only secondary and incidental in high-school instruction. In this statement there is no thought of condemnation for the present practice set forth in the preceding pages, for it is fully realized that present conditions are very far from ideal. Ideally our educational system should be administered and maintained upon such a plane of excellence and efficiency that only teachers who have had thorough professional preparation in institutions of college and university grade are employed. There is really under correct conditions little more valid reason, if any, for the pursuit of education as a professional subject in the high school than for the pursuit of medicine, engineering, or law. The high-school graduate is not adequately prepared to enter at once upon the responsibilities of professional work as a teacher, and he cannot be so prepared. He is deficient not only in professional equipment, but in maturity of mind and character.

So much for what should be. Under actual present conditions, however, the study of education on a utilitarian basis as an

elective subject seems amply justified in some secondary schools. It should be offered in those high schools where it is demanded or especially warranted by local conditions, but paralleled always by a definite protest against these conditions and active efforts to improve them. Adjustment and correspondence to local needs should be the primary guiding principle in determining its scope and nature, and in accordance therewith many high schools should not offer it. The training should be given only by the school or schools in any locality or section which are best equipped for the purpose. The system of training classes in New York is administered on these bases. Relative to the situation in Nebraska State Superintendent McBrien says:

In our opinion there is no other avenue open for the training of teachers for the rural schools in Nebraska than through the agency of our strongest high schools. . . . It is a condition and not a theory which confronts us.⁹

Secondary-school work in education as a utilitarian subject, when given, should chiefly be confined as a matter of course to normal training in the accepted sense of the term. Matters relating directly to the practical work of the teacher with especial reference to that of the rural teacher should receive primary consideration. Still a healthful consciousness of the reality of the historical, scientific, and social aspects of the subject should be aroused. The work should include brief reviews of the essentials of the subjects the students will be required to teach, the essential principles and methods of teaching, school management with special reference to rural schools, observation work, and occasional practice teaching in the grades under competent direction and supervision. No normal training should be given before the junior year and not more than half of it before the senior year. Moreover it is believed that one-fourth of the time of these two years, except in schools where an unusual amount of time is spent on the reviews, is the proper maximum to devote to high-school instruction in normal training. Such training ought never to become prejudicial to liberal academic training which is such an important part of every teacher's equipment. The

⁹ *Nineteenth Biennial Report, Nebraska, 1906, p. 192.*

writer believes that the maintenance in high schools of definite normal courses embodying normal training in excess of the amount indicated, and offering such training earlier than the period of secondary instruction indicated, is decidedly unwise under any conditions. In the distribution of the work outlined above the distinctly pedagogical portions should be postponed to the senior year. All things considered it seems correct to say that these pedagogical aspects of the subject, inclusive of observation and practice teaching, should constitute a regular and normal branch of instruction throughout the senior year. The observation and practice teaching is a prominent part of the work in Nebraska, Michigan, and New York, and some attention is given to it elsewhere.

It is not beyond the range of the capacities and resources of secondary schools to give the training above set forth. Neither it is beyond the capacities and powers of high-school students in the last year or years of the course to profit by such training. All that needs to be done in support of the latter assertion is to bring forward the facts that instruction of secondary grade in normal training is given students of high-school age in a large number of state normal schools throughout the country, and that this situation is taken as a matter of course and seems to be considered fitting and proper by the educational public. The former assertion becomes practically self-evident when the latter is accepted. There can be no doubt that normal training properly given in high schools will obviate a considerable amount of the waste in rural education attendant on existing conditions. A veritable army of high-school graduates begin their careers as teachers every year with no professional or advanced training. Superintendent McBrien of Nebraska after gathering statistics found that 39 per cent. of the graduates of sixty of the strongest high schools of the state during a recent period of three years "immediately took upon themselves the responsible business of teaching."¹⁰ It is the belief of the writer based on experience, and some few but representative data collected on the matter, that more than one-fourth of Iowa high-school graduates have in

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 99.

the past begun teaching within a brief time after graduation without additional training. Similar conditions undoubtedly obtain in many other states. These graduates, practically all of whom go into rural schools, on taking up their work, quite frequently find themselves alone at sea without chart or compass. To many the rural school is an entirely new environment. It is no wonder that for so many the "first term" is a failure. If they continue to teach they gain at the expense of their pupils the training which in a considerable measure they should have acquired previously from the experience of others. In all this enormous waste is clearly entailed, and no small part of it is waste which proper normal training in high schools can prevent.

To guard against misinterpretation the writer at this point, and at the risk of needless repetition, expressly repudiates any intention to champion normal training in secondary schools as a fundamental principle of educational practice. It is regarded simply as an expedient temporary device to tide education over to better things in many states and sections; fundamentally it is considered a makeshift. It may be argued that its introduction means the institution of a bad educational habit, but the substitution of even a bad custom for a much worse one, when the ideal order is unattainable, cannot rationally be regarded otherwise than as a definite change for the better, particularly when the new custom distinctly tends in the direction of the ideal order.

Let us now take up the final and chief phase of the subject in hand. Though education pursued primarily as a utilitarian subject should have no place in high-school instruction under correct educational conditions, it is believed, as previously stated, that it has a legitimate claim as a social subject to a place in all high-school curricula on the same basis with civics, economics, and kindred subjects. An endeavor will now be made to establish the validity of this position.

Education is a social institution of the first rank among the multitude of such institutions, and the life and fortunes of them all are largely dependent upon it. Education in the wide sense of the term is the bulwark of civilization; it is the very essence of human culture, the vital current which nourishes and sustains it.

It is a means invented by man whereby the destiny of the race is placed in no small measure in its own hands, for from the standpoint of the science of life education is evolution consciously directed. A full consciousness of its great potency and value in the realization of the welfare and ends of society is just dawning upon the world at the present time. Unmistakable indications of this awakening are in evidence on every hand. For the posterity of the present age education will undoubtedly be a social institution of the very highest order. All sociologists are agreed as to its supreme importance as a social factor. Dr. Small speaks thus:

Sociology demands of educators that they shall not rate themselves as leaders of children, but as makers of society. Sociology knows no means for the amelioration or reform of society more radical than those of which teachers hold the leverage.¹¹

Lester F. Ward concludes one of his latest contributions to sociology, the treatise entitled *Pure Sociology*, with the following paragraph:

The action of society in inaugurating and carrying on a great educational system, however defective we may consider that system to be, is undoubtedly the most promising form thus far taken by collective achievement. It means much even now, but for the future it means nothing less than the complete social appropriation of individual achievement which has civilized the world. It is the crowning act in the long list of acts that we have only partially and imperfectly considered, constituting the socialization of achievement.

The science of education has a social side which is concerned with those aspects of education that extend beyond the immediate interests of the schoolroom and the details of formal education, with those large and wide aspects of education as an agency of social welfare which are of real concern, whether recognized or not, to society as a whole, to the parent, the taxpayer, the legislator, the citizen, no less than to the teacher. There can be no doubt that at no far distant day much greater relative attention will be given this side of education in colleges and universities than at present, both in education and in sociology. It is the elements of the social side of the science of education just de-

¹¹ *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. II, p. 851.

scribed which it is believed should be offered as a subject of secondary instruction.

The grounds for this belief have in part been suggested. The high school is fully capable of giving its students the instruction referred to in an interesting and profitable form; and in view of the great development, the mighty social influence, and the universality which the future undoubtedly has in store for education, it is believed the high school should begin to do this very thing. Considering the fact that the work can be done in the secondary schools, it will not do to say that it belongs and should be left to the college; for only a small proportion of high-school students later go to college, and of those who do a large share enter professional and technical schools where the study of education has no place. The high school can and should afford its students opportunity and encouragement to become familiar with the fundamental meaning and aims of education, with its pre-eminent importance in the home, the school, society, and life, with the real essentials of educational history, with the cardinal principles upon the basis of which it should be administered in home and school and in general, with the primary educational means and processes, and with the organization of public education, including the legal and financial sides. It can and should arouse in the students a wholesome and abiding interest in educational facts and theories, conditions and ideals, movements and tendencies, and such an interest will develop into rich results in later years.

Not all high-school students become teachers, but all continue to be citizens and members of society, practically all become taxpayers, a large proportion become parents, the boys later exercise the right of suffrage, some become school officials, and a few legislators and civil executives. In all of these spheres the knowledge and interest in education which would result from the instruction outlined above would be more or less valuable and convenient, and particularly will this be true in the future. Such knowledge and interest in the minds of a considerable proportion of influential citizens will be strong factors in improving educational conditions. The ignorance and apathy in which ill condi-

tions are rooted and upon which their survival depends will in some measure be overcome by these positive antagonistic forces. Financial support of education will be more liberal and adequate, the present need for normal training in secondary schools will be decreased, trained and efficient teachers who secure substantial results will not be obliged to compete to the same extent as at present with untrained teachers and those whose chief equipment for success is diplomacy, popularity, and inoffensiveness, the professional standing of teaching will be appreciably elevated, and in general education will swing more nearly into line with true and valid social ends and ideals.

As in the case of normal training and for similar reasons high-school instruction in education as a social subject should be given in the junior and senior years, preferably the latter. It is believed that one-fourth of the time of one year could advantageously be devoted to it and that in general this amount of instruction should be offered. However, students should, if possible, be given the opportunity to elect less. The desirable content of the course or courses has already been sufficiently outlined. The work should be thorough and serious, and all non-essentials and abstruse phases should be carefully debarred. The vocational side naturally and properly will be touched at many points.

The objections relative to lack of time and overcrowded course naturally arise, but they really have little validity. The social subjects now offered in the latter part of the high-school course have at that period no superiority over education from the absolute nature of things. Their advantages are merely those of priority and possession. If by design or chance the sciences of education and political economy had exchanged places in time and course of development, the present positions of education and economics with reference to the high-school curriculum would be reversed. Moreover the displacement of certain work commonly offered by proper courses in education would be a real improvement in secondary curricula. Besides, the social side and phases are by no means sufficiently emphasized in our current education, as Dr. Dewey and others have pointed out.

In conclusion the opinions of a few prominent authorities

regarding the study of education in the high school as a social subject will be quoted. Professor Frederick E. Bolton of the University of Iowa in the course of an article in a leading educational periodical writes:

May the day be hastened when the study of the principles of education shall become a regular part of the course pursued by every college student. . . . Even in the high school an elementary consideration of the relation of education to society might be undertaken and be more beneficial than a knowledge of Caesar's wars.¹²

Herbert Spencer a half-century ago expressed himself in the following positive terms with special reference to the education of youth:

No rational plea can be put forward for leaving the art of education out of our curriculum. Whether as bearing upon the happiness of parents themselves, or whether as affecting the characters and lives of their children and remote descendants, we must admit that a knowledge of the right methods of juvenile culture, physical, intellectual, and moral, is a knowledge second to none in importance. This topic should occupy the highest and last place in the course of instruction passed through by each man and woman. As physical maturity is marked by the ability to produce offspring, so mental maturity is marked by the ability to train those offspring. The subject which involves all other subjects, and therefore the subject in which the education of everyone should culminate, is the theory and practice of education.¹³

Professor Paul H. Hanus of Harvard University, who according to his expressed view is not in favor of normal training in high schools,¹⁴ has the following to say with reference to instruction in education as a social subject:

No function of society is capable of exerting a greater permanent influence on the social welfare than education. And in this country there is no social function of more vital concern to the people. Shall we continue to entrust the administration of this important function, both in the home and in the school, to persons who have no preparation whatever to guide them? It seems to me that instruction in the history of education, and some instruction in the present problems of and present tendencies in education, should be given in every secondary school. Such instruction would give a much needed public insight into present educational aims and practices in the light

¹² *Journal of Pedagogy*, Vol. XV, p. 36.

¹³ *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical*, pp. 162, 163.

¹⁴ J. W. Searson, *Nineteenth Biennial Report*, Nebraska, p. 169.

of their historical evolution, and an intelligent interest in important contemporary problems. Besides, can anyone doubt the beneficent influence of such instruction on the education of children in the home, and on the promotion of the much needed effective and sympathetic co-operation between the home and the school?¹⁵

¹⁵ *Educational Aims and Educational Values*, pp. 97, 98.

SHOULD SECONDARY SCHOOLS TEACH THE BIBLE?

MILNOR DOREY

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In the *Literary Digest* Professor W. L. Phelps of Yale is quoted as declaring that "the ignorance of college students of biblical literature is universal, profound, and complete." He states that he would refuse to allow any candidate to enter a university until he had satisfactorily passed an examination in the Bible—if he were on the committee for entrance examinations in English. More than that, he would have the authorized version the only book on the list. These statements rather imply that secular, rather than Sunday schools are at fault. He believes that secondary schools should teach the Bible on the grounds of its literary merits; because all teachers agree in this respect; because it would be an "enormous convenience to examination boards," "stop wrangling," and "remove the universal and disgraceful ignorance of the Bible among college under-graduates."

Dr. C. Alphonso Smith, of the University of North Carolina, is also quoted in the *Literary Digest* as disproving Professor Phelps's charge. He tested one hundred of his students on some of the simpler stories in the Bible, with overwhelming proof of Professor Phelps's ignorance of real conditions. On the contrary, he argues that the Bible is the only book of which the same number of students would have shown so much knowledge, and hints that any ignorance of it among college students is not an ignorance of facts, but of types, units, and relations.

To test this matter in secondary schools, I gave to ninety-six pupils, averaging eighteen years, ten quotations from Shakespeare, Milton, Browning, and Tennyson, believing that the knowledge of a fact is determined by a recognition of it in some application. The pupils were told to discuss as fully as possible the biblical allusions in the lines, as follows—

Or memorize another Golgotha.

—*Macbeth*, Act I, scene 2, 1, 40.

Here feel we but the penalty of Adam.

—*As You Like It*, Act I, scene 1, 1, 5.

. . . the great King of Kings

Hath in the tables of his law commanded

That thou shalt do no murder.

—*King Richard III*, Act I, scene 4, 1, 200-202.

And that one talent which is death to hide
Lodged with thee useless.

—Sonnet, "On His Blindness."

I may assert eternal Providence
And justify the ways of God to men.

—*Paradise Lost*, Book I, 1, 25, 26.

Through this concession my full cup runs o'er.

—*The Ring and the Book*, Book IX, 1, 148.

How bloody Herod slew these innocents.

—*The Ring and the Book*, Book IX, 1, 136.

Follow Light and do the Right, for man can half control his doom—

Till you see the deathless angel seated in the vacant tomb.

—*Locksley Hall*, Sixty Years After."

And from a heart as rough as Esau's hand.

—"Godiva."

Than that earth should stand at gaze, like Joshua's moon in Ajalon.

—"Locksley Hall."

The following statistics may be of interest. Judging from the appearance of the papers, only 14 had time to attempt all the questions. However, 3 answered all 10; 11 answered 9; 20 answered 7; 22 answered 6; 11 answered 4; 6 answered 2; 4 answered but 1; and 5 handed in blank papers. On a basis of 7 questions out of 10, 48 "passed," or gained 50 per cent. On a basis of 5 out of 7, probably a fairer ratio, 70 passed, or 73 per cent.

In regard to individual questions, the results naturally varied. On the first one, 36 knew what Golgotha was, and 34 of these discussed the matter in full. On the second, 64 knew their Genesis well; only 16 of these being somewhat incomplete. In regard to the Ten Commandments, 91 knew what the lines meant, but only 11 stated that the sixth one was referred to. Number 4 was answered by 58 pupils, 54 of whom told in full the story of the lord and the talents. The fifth was a puzzle, for only 14 expressed themselves in any way approaching the truth. The quotation may not be considered a fair one, for it is rather theological than biblical. The briefest and most inclusive answer given stated that it referred "to the offer of salvation to fallen man, and the destruction promised if that be refused."

On the sixth, 74 seemed to know their Psalms, and 58 of these definitely placed the reference in the twenty-third, in many instances quoting much of the passage. Number seven was discussed correctly by 81 pupils, 75 of whom went into some detail in regard to the cause of the slaughter, and the effects. For the most part, those who incorrectly answered the question confused Herod and Pharaoh, in their bloodthirsty proclivities. Number eight was discussed in rather a speculative way, but 52 gave reasonably correct answers, although half of them were somewhat vague. Many simply referred to the angel in Christ's tomb on resurrection morn; some applied it to each individual's resurrection connoting immortality; others discussed both these facts, and entered into a contrast of predestination and free will, as suggested by the first line. Only 36 answered correctly the ninth, and but 15 told in full the story of Jacob securing the blessing. The 14 who

attempted the tenth, answered it correctly, 10 of these telling the story of the battle and miracle in full.

This paper would not be complete without some reference to the literary museum which always results from an exercise of this kind. The following are a few choice specimens: "Death is a talent which no man can cast off;" "Adam was Eve's wife;" "We are to follow Christ's footsteps till the death *angle* summons us home;" "Esau sold his birthright to Jacob for a bowl of porridge." True enough, many of the errors were the result of downright ignorance, but the great majority were unconscious slips. Taking into account the facts that the test was severe, that but forty minutes were allowed, no previous notification given, and that the high school in question is representative of average church and home conditions throughout the country, we should loudly deny Bible illiteracy among the younger generation

EDITORIAL NOTES

The retirement of President Eliot after forty years of distinguished service has called out general recognition of his great influence in college and university education. The elective system with its immense stimulation for instructors and its increase of opportunity as well as its possibilities of abuse for students would doubtless have come in time, but Dr. Eliot was the chief force in its general adoption.

PRESIDENT ELIOT
AND THE
TEACHING
PROFESSION

The stress, which he, in conjunction with President Gilman of Johns Hopkins, laid upon productive scholarship has done much to breathe new life into American teaching. But perhaps his strongest service to the dignity of the teacher's profession has been his strong interest in all social and civic affairs, and his well-considered, trenchant, and fearless utterance. In a generation when the president of a New England university has almost been forced to resign because of his economic views, when state universities have but slowly escaped the perils of partisan control, and when teachers of secondary and elementary schools are still frequently warned by newspapers and other authorities of lesser rank that they are only employees and must not "meddle" with taxation or other political matters, Dr. Eliot has stood persistently and ruggedly for the larger conception of the teacher's function. He has spoken only when he has reflected, but no one has disputed his right to speak. There is greater academic freedom and a broader view of a teacher's opportunity because of President Eliot.

And in another respect he has honored his profession. He has never hesitated to say that he likes it. In an informal talk which he was once asked to give on "The Trials of a College President," he began by saying that he didn't consider that he knew of any worth mentioning, so far as his own experience went. He often has spoken of his profession as the finest in the world.

President Eliot's influence upon secondary education, if its story could be fully told, would be found to be perhaps scarcely less than his influence upon the college and university. This has been exerted most directly upon those academies and high schools which fit for Harvard College, but it has not been limited to these.

It would not be fair to attribute all the changes in entrance requirements for the past forty years to any one man, but there are two special changes and one general movement in which we believe President Eliot has been an important, and probably the most important, single factor.

Of the two special changes, the first in value is the greatly increased attention given to English. The meager time allowed for this in secondary schools and the slight importance attached to it by college-entrance requirements thirty years ago, in comparison with the solid training devoted to Latin, Greek, and mathematics, were perhaps the most extraordinary phase of the educational situation at that time. To suppose that the vital energies, the dawning appreciations, the varied powers of growing boys and girls could be fully evoked and satisfied for three years by the Gallic War, Catiline's conspiracy, and the adventures of the Ten Thousand, even when spiced with paradigms and syntax, and associated with the fascinations of algebra and geometry, might certainly have moved the witty Greeks, if not the stern Romans, to mirth. Methods of teaching English are no doubt still far from satisfactory in many cases but it is a great advance to give our own speech and our own splendid literature a place in the curriculum almost as important as that of Latin. President Eliot was a positive force in giving English this place.

The second special change was the introduction of physics as a subject required for entrance. It has been remarked that it is rather singular that President Eliot threw his influence in favor of physics instead of chemistry, his own specialty. Certainly physics as it has been taught for the most part has been a highly abstract affair, less closely related to boys' interests than chemistry; and the opinion has been expressed that the teaching of physics in the way in which it has been determined by college-

PRESIDENT ELIOT'S
INFLUENCE UPON
SECONDARY
EDUCATION

entrance requirements—and in this respect Harvard has been a leader—has done far more to prejudice boys and girls against science than to encourage to further study.

The general change has been in raising the entrance requirements for college. To discuss the merits and demerits of this would take us too far afield. It seems to have been undertaken as if with the idea of elevating the college by pushing it up one year toward a university standard, or rather pushing it into the university region. The result has been that what we now have is neither college nor university. It is a mixture of both with a most unsatisfactory result; and the high schools are in almost open revolt against the colleges which by their entrance requirements make it seemingly impracticable to give a training appropriate physically, socially, morally, and mentally for boys and girls of the critical age. It is not fair to load all the blame for this on the colleges in general, or upon President Eliot in particular. The case was that at a period when the old was proving itself inadequate the general public need had not been clearly grasped or formulated. Our new social conditions demanded advance but the time was not ripe for a clear expression of this demand. If the high schools had known what they wanted and could have interpreted the public need, the colleges would have followed. As it was, the public did not know what it wanted while the colleges knew what they wanted. President Eliot especially had a definite conception, and the secondary schools followed it.

We are now feeling the need of another reconstruction determined by other principles than those which have hitherto been most prominent, but certain aspects of President Eliot's work, notably, we believe, his influence in the matter of English, have permanent value and will remain.

J. H. T.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Child's Mind, Its Growth and Training. By W. E. URWICK. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1907. Pp. xi+269.

This little volume is a discussion of certain problems in the psychology of education rather than a study in genetic psychology, as its name would indicate. It is the learning process particularly that engages the author's attention and his treatment of the rather loosely related topics is quite informal and most suggestive. In spite of this the net outcome of the book is a little disappointing. It is rather in its scattered suggestions and its point of view than in its completed statements that it has most value. The reader feels that the author is on a good trail but needs to follow it out further. He happily escapes from many of the traditional stereotyped concepts of psychology, especially of the type in vogue in most educational circles. It is this freedom with which he grasps the educational problem and uses the psychological machinery as his tool in interpreting it that constitutes one of the novel things about the book. "The educator," he says, "is, in the first place, concerned with the process of learning, and the conditions best suited to it, and in the second with the meaning of the term 'character' and the best means of training it; and he is perfectly justified in treating psychological data from the point of view most suited to his purposes, and need not concern himself if this does not exactly correspond to the trend of psychology as a science" (p. 56).

He lays particular emphasis upon the problem or conscious purpose in the learning process, upon the impulsive or conative character of consciousness as crystallized and given meaning through the working-out of the purpose, upon the development of meaning and value generally through the child's assuming an active attitude toward his world. He also lays stress upon the significance of spontaneity, of free play of mental process as over against formal method, and points out the place of the social context in this development of meanings.

Education he conceives as more than the mere acquisition of facts. It is rather the development of meanings, of impulses, of the power to act and to use. His interpretation of the knowledge process, as related to the acquisition of meanings and motives, is most suggestive and sound. His discussion on pp. 143-49 is an implicit but excellent constructive criticism of the Herbartian formal theory of learning. His treatment of "Imagination and Reasoning," chaps. vii and viii, is particularly worthy of note. His underlying thought throughout is that of the active, appropriative child, who grows intellectually by facing problems both within and without the school. The task confronting the teacher is not that of producing reasoning, for example, but of furnishing fruitful fields for its exercise. Psychic processes, in other words, go on with or without the teacher and the best growth occurs under conditions which furnish opportunity for their free, spontaneous exercise. And yet passivity and repression too often prevail in the schoolroom. "Forms of expression, instead of being found and gradually perfected by pupils themselves, are given ready-made by teachers or text-book, and repeated until known by pupils. . . . Pro-

longed subjection to such teaching produces a type of mind only too common nowadays, which is the despair of the real educator. . . . The idea the pupil has of home work is to pore over a text till certain phrases or names have clung to the memory; in school his mind is as torpid as a stagnate pond. . . . Most disastrous of all, the pupil is all the time under the impression he is doing his best, and his idea of work becomes synonymous with his idea of drudgery" (p. 158).

Altogether we commend the book as a most suggestive presentation of certain phases of educational theory from the point of view of functional or activity psychology.

IRVING KING

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The Life of Alice Freeman Palmer. By GEORGE HERBERT PALMER. New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1908. Pp. 354. Price, \$1.50 net.

To have one's life a definite contribution to the significant complex forces in modern social life and then to be the subject of a biography so well formed that it perpetuates that contribution is the fortune of few men and of fewer women. This is one of the rare books which one wishes to share with many others. Opportunities for it to be a pleasure and help to readers, young and old, will not be uncommon. We do not have many educational biographies of distinctly literary character—in this case there is not only this merit but the school in wide range is only a major interest in the larger social situation.

Many friends of Alice Freeman feared when she married that her larger usefulness would be lost in her personal and family life. While all had occasion to realize how far this was from the actual result, yet the later chapters of the present book surprise even those who were close at hand, by the multifarious interests and activities which were forwarded by Mrs. Palmer during the fifteen years of her married life. Professor Palmer discusses these as well as the questionings referred to and his own part in her life with such frankness and yet delicacy as will serve to remove the last doubt. Had the work no other function than to serve as a contribution to the all too small shelf of books outside of fiction dealing with life in marriage, it would deserve and receive a wide reading. The reasons given for the writing—"the insatiability of love, the general desire for portraiture, the rights of history"—are followed by the sentence, "Since I can no longer talk with her, I would talk of her and get the comfort of believing that even now without me she may not be altogether perfect."

The life is treated in four sections—family life, from birth, 1855, to the time of entering Windsor Academy, 1865; the expansion of her powers, up to her graduation from Michigan University in 1876; her service of others, up to her marriage in 1887, and lastly, expression of herself, up to her death in 1902. In each period one is impressed by the problems it contained, such as hardship, decision between pressing responsibilities and opportunities, also by the persons and places concerned. All these are vividly present to the reader—one does not need to know Ann Arbor, Wellesley, Cambridge, and Boxford to share in the home sense given to them. The extent to which it is made pos-

sible to participate in the Sabbatical year journeyings is another delightful feature.

Apart from what has been mentioned there are the more direct touches in which one gets at Mrs. Palmer's communication of thought. A number of pages are given to verses written by her and known to her husband only after her death. In various places are given her ideas on co-education, woman suffrage, the religious life of students, the organization of the curriculum, etc. Of value too are the results of the close study given to her methods of working and studying, by her husband. It is to be regretted that there is no index, for so many passages refer to matters to which the reader wishes to turn again, and these are not easily found in a work of this nature.

Naturally interest centers in Mrs. Palmer's organizing and administrative experiences at Wellesley in which she did pioneer work. One is reminded of the work of Frances Willard in the woman's college at Evanston more than a decade earlier. (See *Glimpses of Fifty Years*, 1889, by Frances E. Willard.) Both books will make good reading for the many young women who are concerned in administrative work today. The later life in which the claims of state, philanthropy, school, and home were met with remarkable balance is equally of direct value to those who have similar problems. There is a temptation to enumerate other special interests but this biography can belong to no class or classes—it will serve many interests. In the same way there are in every chapter striking passages that call for quotation but the reader must take the book as a whole.

F. A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICH.

Graphic Algebra. By ARTHUR SCHULTZE, PH.D. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. viii+93. \$0.80.

This author has done a real service to teachers of algebra in presenting so clearly and concisely the beauty and usefulness of graphic methods. Many teachers still feel that graphic work is a mere fad, and this book should help largely in dispelling that false idea. A boy who goes into engineering or any kind of applied mathematics, and has not been fortunate enough in his early training to be introduced to this phase of work, at once finds that he is out-classed by his competitors and that his ignorance of this most elegant and useful tool is largely responsible for it. Graphic work should begin with the first introduction to simultaneous equations and should continue throughout every subject as long as mathematics is studied. It is not a fad; it is a tool which if properly understood will throw more light on dark places in mathematics than almost any other means. The failure of many teachers to appreciate this results from their own lack of training and acquaintance with the practical side of mathematics and from their attempt to crowd too much graphic work into the early part of the course. It has a simple side and elementary uses. These, and these only, should come early, but having once been introduced, there should be a continual and gradual development—never ceasing as long as mathematics continue. Dr. Schultze's little book develops in illuminating manner all of the

common forms of applications, and, in addition, brings out a large number of methods less commonly known, especially in the use of parabola and certain higher curves in deriving graphic solutions of equations. The book should be of the utmost value to high-school teachers, not so much in supplying material to give to high-school pupils, as in furnishing that self-illumination and reserve power which contribute so largely to a teacher's effectiveness, and which, in unseen ways, tend to arouse and sustain interest and enthusiasm in the pupils.

High School Algebra. By J. H. TANNER, PH.D. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. vi+346. \$1.00.

This text covers substantially the same ground as the author's *Elementary Algebra*, but presents a briefer and simpler treatment of the topics.

An important feature of the book, which is to be commended, is the placing of a chapter on quadratic equations *before* the chapter on radicals and imaginaries, and the theory of exponents. The fact that this is done, as the author says, on the request of prominent mathematics teachers, is an emphatic indication of the present tendency among thoughtful teachers to postpone more of the abstract manipulation till later in the course, and to put the whole subject of equations earlier. When this is done some of the richest applications of algebra are put within reach of the pupil in the first year of the course, whereas, if radicals, exponents, and imaginaries come early, the interesting and useful problems in quadratics are crowded out, and the pupil either never sees them, if he leaves school after one year, or else he may become discouraged with the overdose of abstract manipulation and drop out of algebra with disgust as soon as the absolute requirements of the curriculum will permit. The same argument which justifies postponement of formal radicals, exponents, and imaginaries till after quadratics would also postpone much of the complicated work in factoring and fractions, thus allowing the pupil to get interested in the *use of algebra* for solving problems at a still earlier period.

The form and style of this text are a great improvement over the author's *Elementary Algebra* for the use of the beginner in the high school. Many teachers will possibly feel that if the graphic work is worth introducing at all, it should be developed in connection with simultaneous equations instead of separately in a much later chapter.

H. E. SLAUGHT

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

American History for Use in Secondary Schools. By ROSCOE LEWIS ASHLEY. New York: Macmillan, 1907. Pp. xxxv+557+xlvi.

This is an admirable textbook for secondary schools. The proportions are very just. The halfway mark falls immediately after the formation of the federal government; military operations are condensed into a very short space, the Civil War taking only thirty pages; and an unusual amount of attention is given to social and economic changes. The text is remarkably free from error, and the author seems to be fully acquainted with the latest results of scholarship. At the same time he shows independence of judgment, as is illustrated by

his making 1843 the point of chapter division between the era of Jacksonian and of slavery politics.

From a pedagogical point of view it is equally good. The style is clear and analytical, the paragraphs are given titles, and references are indicated in the margin. At the end of each chapter is a summary, and valuable suggestions follow, giving "topics" with brief bibliographies, "studies" with single references and questions. The index is good, and the appendix gives much useful material.

The illustrations consist largely of portraits, which perhaps make up for the somewhat too slight attention paid to personality. There are many maps, some very good, but others carelessly selected or constructed. The map of territorial changes in 1713 (p. 91) contains errors; that of the railways of the South (p. 400), although, apparently, referring to the Civil War period, really gives a much later condition; that of the restriction of Confederate territory (p. 428) creates a false impression.

The account of the last thirty-five years is dry and lacking in the grasp and perspective which distinguish the earlier portions. There is, moreover, throughout, a failure thoroughly to correlate the social and economic with the more conventional material. These, however, are weaknesses only when looked at from the point of view of the perfect textbook, for these problems have never yet been handled with entire success, and I must repeat, in conclusion, my great appreciation of a very satisfactory book.

CARL RUSSELL FISH

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

Atlas of European History. By EARLE W. DOW, Junior Professor of History in the University of Michigan. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Price, \$1.50.

The need of a good historical atlas for American schools has long been felt and all teachers will therefore be delighted with the collection of maps Professor Dow has made. He has relied mainly upon the larger standard atlases in German and French, but has also consulted other sources in the form of documents, maps, articles, and books. While the work is not faultless, it is a very creditable and valuable undertaking and should greatly stimulate the study of place in connection with the development of history.

The work in history would undoubtedly be vastly improved if every student could have in his hands such an atlas as this from the very beginning of his historical course and use it continuously. The price is so low that this should not be impracticable.

The atlas consists of thirty-two plates, some giving but a single double-page map, while others have four or five smaller maps. The maps illustrate the history of every important people and period in history—a very happy and well-balanced selection being made. Many of the maps are colored, others are in black and white. The colors might be a little brighter for an atlas should tempt and please the eye as well as supply accurate geographical data. One might also criticize the absence of maps showing the physical features of countries in some striking way, such as by the use of the relief scheme. Thus the importance of the Nile or the Tigris-Euphrates valley, or of the Mediterra-

nean basin, as centers of civilization, as well as the importance of the distribution of population in a country like the United States, can be illustrated most clearly by showing the relief of the country. Another improvement would have been the indication of the pronunciation of the names of the places given in the otherwise very full and helpful index.

GEORGE L. SCHERGER

ARMOUR INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

Principles of Secondary Education: A Textbook. Vol. II, "Processes of Instruction." By CHARLES DEGARMO. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 200. Price, \$1.00 net.

Pedagogical literature was slow in appearing in America. The comparatively recent date of the greater part of what we have is often overlooked. The Herbartian school has furnished a number of valuable works among which is DeGarmo's *Essentials of Method* which appeared in 1892 or before. It is significant that the long unbroken secondary education field has at last been entered by this author, who, like Findlay in England, after prominent service in the Herbartian camp, has come to a more independent position, showing in his later work a variety of influences.

The first volume of the present series dealing with the studies was reviewed in the *School Review* for June, 1907. The third volume will deal with "Processes of Training." In some ways questions which were raised when the first volume appeared will have to await the appearance of the final work before one can be sure of the author's position. The "Processes of Instruction" is somewhat less dependent upon the others in the series for interpretation as it is concerned with the more formal aspects of the subject. In executing it the attempt has been made to develop the "scientific basis for high-school methods" and to show the use of "scientific method in high-school instruction."

The author keeps the threefold division of his former work with a change of two of the names, discussing the processes of instruction under apperception, thought and application. The scientific basis is treated under the acquisition of facts (authority, observation, and experiment) and the meeting of the problem of which the end is the explanation of meaning; the forms are the determination of cause, classification, and generalization; and the means, hypothesis and analogy.

Everyone will agree as to the importance of the undertaking, but probably there will be less agreement as to its success. The constant emphasis upon the necessity for insight and efficiency and the relation of culture and discipline to these is helpful. Objections are often raised to the use of the term "laboratory methods" to designate the tendency in question but the movement is one of significance. The school and the laboratory are alike in that in each use is made of a method midway between that of trial and error with full and often overwhelming physical and social consequences, and transcendental theorizing with no responsibility for the outcome. By this method enough of the consequences are involved to afford genuine experience while conditions are sufficiently controlled to provide for freedom enough to permit of clear statement and

interpretation with application to other cases in which less control of conditions is possible.

It is also a contribution to have so many illustrations taken from the field of secondary education to show the use of pedagogical principles which too often are treated as if they belonged to elementary education alone.

But one could wish that the resulting scheme, born of a union of the logic of the schools and that of the laboratory, favored less the first-named parent. As a text in logic it is freed from much of the old verbiage and unnecessary machinery, but the book is yet to be written which will enable the ordinary high-school teacher to carry to his students a vision of scientific method as it is glimpsed in Descartes, made living in Darwin's biography, and organized for advanced students in such a course as Dewey's *Types of Logical Theory*. (A suggestion of the Darwin material is seen in Cramer's *Method of Darwin*. Some lines of development are shown in the field of English in the series of books by Professor Buck and others of Vassar, published by Henry Holt & Co.)

It would seem that space could be spared for at least a brief discussion of the use of scientific method in the study of the problems of secondary education. Reference to such material as Thorndike's chapters in *The Principles of Teaching* and in *Educational Psychology* would be appreciated. Some reference to the studies of special subjects would be useful, even though it emphasized the fact that the one who is training secondary teachers at present must limit his choice for this purpose largely to studies of elementary subjects as the Psychology of Reading, Abilities in Arithmetic, etc. Again it would seem to be in place for a book which lays so much stress on the laboratory phase of all work to contain some discussion of the attempts made in this line. "Individual" and "group" instruction, for instance, have been written about sufficiently to justify one in looking to such a work as this for some guidance in getting at the meaning of what has been undertaken. It is to be hoped that the third volume will furnish at least a brief bibliography of secondary education in which the student will be aided in his study of these and other topics by evaluated references to book and periodical literature.

The discussion of the educational status of the high-school student as compared with that of the man of research has proved very helpful to students in aiding them to get a better view of the high-school problem.

Taken as a whole this volume, while contributing less to the student than did its predecessor, yet brings together within small compass material that teachers need acquaintance with, and it will help to bring us more fully to consciousness as to the needs of training for secondary school teachers.

F. A. MANNY

Physiography for High Schools. By PROFESSOR ROLLIN D. SALISBURY, The University of Chicago. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1908. Pp. 531, 469 figures and illustrations, 24 plates.

This new text is adapted and intended for first- or second-year high-school pupils. It covers the ground usually covered by its more recent predecessors, some three hundred pages being devoted to land forms, fourteen to

earth relations, one hundred and thirty-nine to the atmosphere, and thirty-six to the ocean.

The book has the very desirable qualities of being readable and at the same time presenting adequate information. The ease with which the pupil can read it is due to the author's remarkably clear, definite, and concise style of writing which never leaves any doubt as to his meaning. Its adequate information arises not from its being encyclopedic in character but from the way in which the facts are organized so as to give the pupil a conception of the processes of nature and how the various features came to be. This method of treatment in and of itself tends to open the pupil's eyes and set him to asking questions of nature. This characteristic is illustrated admirably in the two chapters dealing with the work of running water and of snow and ice.

The illustrations are numerous and well chosen and stand out clearly on the highly calendared paper. As a single illustration of this—the chapter on weather contains twenty-four maps from which the conclusions of the chapter may be reached inductively. The chapter dealing with the effects of physiographic conditions upon plants and animals is interesting in that it is written by two specialists in modern plant and animal ecology, Dr. H. C. Cowles and Dr. C. C. Adams.

After a hurried reading of various chapters when it first appeared, the book impressed the writer as being what might well be termed a teachable book. A three-months' trial of the book in class has given no occasion for changing this opinion.

The book was not written to be followed chapter by chapter or to be used in any one particular way, and will lend itself admirably to the various methods of teaching employed by different teachers.

R. D. CALKINS

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
MT. PLEASANT, MICH.

Guide to High-School Observation. By G. M. WHIPPLE. "Cornell Study Bulletins for Teachers." Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen, 1908. Pp. 42.

This bulletin has been prepared to assist New York teachers in meeting the requirement for the college-graduate certificate calling for twenty hours in observation of school work actually in progress. The work is classified under fourteen heads, four dealing with matters of programme, curriculum, attendance, and general organization; psychological principles in teaching; discipline and control, moral training; hygienic conditions. The remaining ten deal with the various school subjects. It is to be regretted that no sections are given to manual training, domestic arts, graphic arts, music, or commercial subjects.

High-school teaching is not considered so much as a gift or act of inspiration as in former years. While the problems are not the same as those of the elementary school, they require no less preparation, and this syllabus will help to bring about better conditions. A second reading gives one an opportunity to observe what a large number of practical problems are brought to the student's attention and also how much up-to-date information is included in an incidental way. In this latter class are such matters as the size of the average high school, distribution of attendance, etc.

A dozen or more references for consultation are given at the close of the book. These, however, all deal with the school subjects, and no books are cited with reference to the four general sections on which teachers need help, it may be, more than they do on their special subjects. It is to be hoped that later editions will fill up some of the partially blank pages with more detailed references for reading and study. I do not know any other work which will enable a teacher or a school corps so well to check up information regarding a school's condition. It ought to be of service in the planning of high-school teachers' meetings.

School Reports and School Efficiency. By DAVID S. SNEDDEN, PH.D., AND WILLIAM H. ALLEN, PH.D. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 183.

This is an educational work of unusual importance. In it are shown briefly the development of school reports in America and the occasional and for the most part futile efforts of the National Education Association to improve them. The most important chapters are: "Important Questions Not Answered by Existing Reports," "Suggested Economies and Improvements for School Reports," and "A Practical Study of One School Report (New York City)." There are also nearly one hundred pages of "Examples of Tables and Other Forms of Presenting School Facts, Used in Typical City School Reports." About twenty-five cities and the State of Connecticut are used to show what has been done that is worth while in accounting and reporting.

Perhaps the most direct profit to the maker of reports will come from the three chapters named above. One can well begin with the last chapter which definitely shows the defects and possibilities of the New York City report. From this go to the "Important Questions Not Answered," noting that of the 147 questions given in this chapter the New York report fails to answer 113.

The articles in which Dr. Allen began this crusade seemed somewhat destructive. It is fortunate that he has joined forces with so sane and able a schoolman as Dr. Snedden, making the present work give the impression of constructive rather than merely negative criticism. The wisdom with which readers are cautioned against overdoing the statistical side of their work and the way in which the school census, defective children, abnormal conditions in school property, bookkeeping, etc., are shown in relation to large social problems are especially to be commended. The business man and the social worker as well as the schoolman have reason to welcome this book.

F. A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICH.

The High School Course in English. By WILLARD G. BLEYER. Madison: Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin. High School Series, No. 1. Pp. 69.

Every practical, definite discussion of the high-school English course has now a double value—first, for the help it must give many teachers; second, for its part in bringing about the unity of purpose and practice still lamentably lacking. This bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, now issued in revised form,

should be one of the most useful of such publications. It is comprehensive, concise, clear in arrangement and expression, concrete—taking up the work in both composition and literature by years, and including outlines for the course, and a bibliography. No one can read it without an increase of interest and many nods of approval.

The same desire which inspired Professor Bleyer in writing the treatise, however, must give the critic courage to withhold approval from certain parts of the plan proposed. In a number of matters of detail many excellent teachers would not agree with Professor Bleyer, and some more important recommendations should not go altogether without protest. After a sound and modest statement, in the beginning, of the purpose of composition, it is rather startling to find the title "Outline for the Study of Composition and Style." The outline, moreover, justifies the fear aroused by the curious combination and co-ordination in the title, giving full sections on figures of speech, qualities of style, and forms of discourse. This fact becomes more significant when the reader notes that the subject of composition, which receives half the time in the first two years, is allowed one-fifth or less in the last two. This curtailed composition course is the worst feature of the plan presented. Fortunately we have reached the place where many teachers feel that if the last two years must be divided in the unfair ratio of 4 to 1, the four parts should go to composition—and would say "If composition can have fair time in only two years, let us by all means have the last two." In a time when one of our greatest enemies is the truncated composition course, it is discouraging to find so strong a voice raised in its behalf.

But whatever objection may be made to certain features of the course, there can be none to the underlying theory. Sound, simple, and strong, it should put the teacher on his guard against mistaken, pretentious, insincere aims and methods. Moreover, along with the theory go many most valuable suggestions, such as those with reference to oral composition, the handling of themes, the use of the textbook, and personal conference. There is such a wealth of the best, most practical advice that any necessary modification of the course seems almost a minor matter. The treatise as a whole shows the great advance that has been made in the teaching of the subject, and so gives courage. It should be constantly on every teacher's desk.

JOHN MAXWELL CROWE

UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

Specimens of Prose Composition. Edited by CHARLES READ NUTTER, FRANK WILSON CHENEY HERSEY, AND CHESTER NOYES GREENOUGH. Boston: Ginn, 1907. Pp. xxxi+476. \$1.25.

A book of selections or specimens is generally a thing most fearfully and wonderfully made. Let a teacher get a twisted pedagogical idea, a distorted scheme of selection, and a freakish system of notation, and he is apparently not contented until he has turned his light on the benighted schools and on the befogged teachers of English. There is possibly only one worse kind of book of selections: the book which is aimless and lifeless. But a volume of specimens marked by common-sense (a term we need not define) and reasonable adapta-

tion toward a purposeful end is a source of joy and profit. Such a volume is the *Specimens of Prose Composition*. In quality and length the "Specimens" are pedagogically sound. In classification the subject-matter is well graded and distinctive. Description, for example, is divided into descriptions of "Landscape," "Cities," "People," "Exteriors and Interiors," and, as regards the technical elements, this topic is divided into parts dealing with the "Dominant Note," "Point of View," "Color," "Sound," and "Odor." This single feature makes the study of the book worth while. The editors have placed "Exposition" first, "Argumentation" second, "Description" third, and "Narration" fourth. Our space does not permit our discussing this feature, but every teacher of English knows that the above order of treatment is probably a more logical arrangement of the study of structure in English prose composition than the time-honored course—Narration, Description, Exposition, and Argumentation. Another special feature of the volume is the inclusion of good compositions by students themselves. The core of the editors' thesis lies in the principle that all writing tends to become modified in accordance with the writer's intention to analyze or to depict. This in itself is an interesting and pertinent psychological contribution to the theory of English composition. The book is probably better adapted to college classes than to high-school classes.

Composition-Rhetoric. By STRATTON D. BROOKS AND MARIETTA HUBBARD.
New York: American Book Company. Pp. 448.

The first 216 pages of this book deal with "Expression of Ideas Arising from Experience," "Expression of Ideas Furnished by Imagination," "Expression of Ideas Acquired through Language," "The Purpose of Expression," "The Whole Composition," "Letter Writing," and "Poetry," and, incidentally, with the four forms of discourse. Part II treats the forms of discourse very fully, and the Appendix wanders over the familiar themes of "Elements of Form," grammar, figures of speech, the rhetorical features of the sentence, synonyms, and word usage. Our outline of the volume indicates the chief fault of the book—its prolixity. Moreover, the first part of the book, that part which must be covered in the earlier part of the course in English, is too technical for the freshman and the sophomore. The book is rich in raw material that should have been more thoroughly worked up for secondary pupils. Why the chapter on "Poetry" should have been inserted in the middle of the volume is not apparent—unless the authors were impressed with the knowledge that a larger number of our pupils leave school by the end of the second year than at the end of the full course. A recasting of the material with the intention of making for more simplicity and directness will make for more force and influence. Had the publishers directed more care toward the reproduction of the pictures, the book would have gained in attractiveness. Where pictures are used they should be made with the utmost artistic skill. In all other respects the volume is attractive and pleasing to hand and eye.

H. E. COBLENTZ

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
Milwaukee, Wis.

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION

- Education and National Character.* By HENRY CHURCHILL KING, FRANCIS GREENWOOD PEABODY, LYMAN ABBOTT, WASHINGTON GLADDEN, AND OTHERS. Chicago: The Religious Education Association, 1908. Pp. 319.
- American Playgrounds: Their Construction, Equipment, Maintenance and Utility.* Edited by EVERETT B. MERO. Boston: American Gymnasias Co., 1908. Pp. 270. Illustrated.
- Life Questions of High School Boys.* By JEREMIAH W. JENKS. New York: Y. M. C. A. Press, 1908. Pp. 143.
- Méthodes américaines d'éducation générale et technique.* Par OMER BUYSE. Charleroi: Musée Provincial, 1908. Pp. 744. Illustrated.
- Moral Instruction and Training in Schools.* (2 vols.) By M. E. SADLER. New York and London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1908. Vol. I, pp. 538; Vol. II, pp. 378. \$1.50 each.
- The American College: A Criticism.* By ABRAHAM FLEXNER. New York: The Century Co., 1908. Pp. 237. \$1.00.
- Educational Issues in the Kindergarten.* By SUSAN E. BLOW. Chicago: Appleton & Co., 1908. Pp. 386.
- The Rural School in the United States.* By JOHN C. HOCKENBERRY. Published by the author, California, Pa. Pp. 124. \$0.75.

ENGLISH

- Principles and Method in the Study of English Literature.* By WILLIAM MACPHERSON. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1908. Pp. 92. \$0.60.
- The Pearl.* A Middle English Poem Done into Modern Verse. By SOPHIE JEWETT. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1908. Pp. 101. \$1.00.
- A Punctuation Primer.* By FRANCES M. PERRY. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 103.
- Eliot's Silas Marner.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by CORNELIA BEARE. New York: C. E. Merrill & Co., 1908. Pp. 336. \$0.40.
- Shakespeare's Two Gentlemen of Verona.* (First Folio Edition.) Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by CHARLOTTE PORTER AND HELEN A. CLARKE. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1908. Pp. 205. \$0.75.
- Shakespeare's Coriolanus.* (First Folio Edition.) Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by CHARLOTTE PORTER AND HELEN A. CLARKE. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1908. Pp. 296. \$0.75.
- Shakespeare's Taming of the Shrew.* (First Folio Edition.) Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by CHARLOTTE PORTER AND HELEN A. CLARKE. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1908. Pp. 261. \$0.75.
- Hughes' Tom Brown's School Days.* (Pocket Edition.) Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1908. Pp. 296. \$0.25.

Austen's Pride and Prejudice. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by JOSEPHINE WOODBURY HEERMANS. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1908. Pp. 338. \$0.25.

LATIN

Latin Lessons for Beginners. By DANIEL W. LOTHMAN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1908. Pp. 178.

Two Dramatizations from Vergil: I. Dido; II. The Fall of Troy. Arranged and translated into English verse by FRANK JUSTUS MILLER. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1908. Pp. 120. \$1.08 postpaid.

GERMAN

German Inflections, Arranged in Parallels. By H. C. BIERWIRTH. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1908. Pp. 82. \$0.40.

Volkman-Leander's Träumereien an französischen Kaminen. Edited, with Notes and Exercises, by J. B. E. JONAS AND ANNE T. WEEDEN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1908. Pp. 243. \$0.40.

Arnold's Fritz auf Ferien. Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by MAY THOMAS. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 112. \$0.30.

HISTORY AND ECONOMICS

Ideals of the Republic. By JAMES SCHOULER. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1908. Pp. 304. \$1.50.

American Charities. By AMOS G. WARNER. New edition, revised and enlarged by MARY ROBERTS COOLIDGE. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1908. Pp. 510. \$2.00.

Economics. By SCOTT NEARING AND FRANK D. WATSON. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1908. Pp. 499. \$1.90.

Americans of Today and Tomorrow. By ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co., 1908. Pp. 133. \$0.50.

The Two Hague Conferences and Their Contributions to International Law. By WILLIAM I. HULL. Published for the International School of Peace by Ginn & Co., Boston, 1908. Pp. 516. \$1.65.

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

A Textbook of Practical Physics. By WILLIAM WATSON. New York and London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1906. Pp. 626. Illustrated. \$2.60.

Elements of Physics. GEORGE A. HOADLEY. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 464. Illustrated. \$1.20.

Physics for Secondary Schools. By CHARLES F. ADAMS. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. 490. Illustrated. \$1.20.

Progressive Problems in Physics. By FRED R. MILLER. BOSTON: D. C. Heath & Co., 1908. Pp. 218. Illustrated. \$0.60.

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CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

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¹ *Abbreviations.*—*Amer. Phys. Educa.*, American Physical Education Review; *Atlan.*, Atlantic Monthly; *Cent.*, Century Magazine; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Harp. W.*, Harper's Weekly; *N.*, November; *O.*, October; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Psycholog. Clinic.*, Psychological Clinic; *Relig. Educa.*, Religious Education; *R. of R.'s*, Review of Reviews; *School R.*, School Review; *Sci. Amer.*, Scientific American; *Scot. Geog. Mag.*, Scottish Geographical Magazine; *Teach. Coll. Rec.*, Teachers' College Record.

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NOTES AND NEWS

The meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association will be held in Washington, D. C., February 25, 26, and 27, 1908. The new Willard Hotel will be the headquarters of the department. The prospect is reported as excellent for the largest meeting of the department yet held.

A second edition of 100,000 copies of the small primer, *Elements of Esperanto*, setting forth the grammar, word-construction, and purpose of the language, has been printed for free distribution. A copy will be mailed to any person who requests it, sending stamp for postage. Address Arthur Baker, Editor *Amerika Esperantisto*, 1239 Michigan Ave., Chicago.

Indiana has established a pension fund for teachers in every city in the state with a population of 100,000 or more. Part of this is to be raised by a tax on teachers' salaries, part by gift, and part by a special tax on the citizens. Any teacher who ceases to teach in the schools of Indiana before becoming qualified for the pension list, may expect to have one-half of the tax which he has paid refunded.

At the meeting of the St. Louis Board of Education held November 12, 1907, a report was made by Superintendent Soldan on the advisability of establishing schools for special instruction, wherein children who are mentally defective can receive needed attention. The recommendations with which the report closes were adopted without alteration and are now being carried into execution. They are as follows:

(a) It is recommended that six rooms for the reception of defective children be secured, and that the Secretary be authorized, upon recommendation of the superintendent, and with the consent of the finance committee, to rent three buildings for this purpose.

(b) It is recommended that the building commissioner be authorized to fit up these buildings for the purpose contemplated by this report and make the proper provision for heating and toilet accommodations.

(c) It is recommended that the supply commissioner be authorized to provide the necessary furniture, and such books and supplies, including carfare, as may be recommended by the superintendent of instruction.

(d) It is recommended that in due time the superintendent of instruction submit to the board of education the names of the teachers, supervisors and attendants who are to fill the positions created by the adoption of this plan, at salaries not exceeding those named in the above estimates.

(e) It is recommended that the superintendent of instruction submit to the board of education the name of a physician in good standing to fill the office of medical adviser, at a salary not exceeding the rate of \$2,500 per year, such appointment being probationary.

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A new course of study for the elementary department of the Los Angeles schools was adopted in June, and in it an effort has been made to cut away the useless parts, and to make it thoroughly practical throughout. Much of the traditional part of arithmetic has been omitted in order that more time can be given to securing accuracy and facility in the numerical operations and insight into the application of these operations to the real situations in life, about which children ought to know. More attention is paid to spelling and to penmanship than before. Important modifications in the knowledge subjects of history and geography have been made. The course attempts to point out the essentials of these subjects as determined by the demands of the social whole, for abundant and effective entrance into which the schools are preparing the children. With the conviction that instruction in morality is the most important part of schoolwork, a course in the fundamental virtues is introduced, to the end that no child may go forth from the schools without having had the lessons of honesty, uprightness, and honor impressed upon him. And, being persuaded that all these things are of no avail unless the mind be habituated and trained to keep the body strong, provision for daily lessons in the proper methods of walking, sitting, standing, and breathing is made, that the schools may not fail to do their work of ministering to the health of the children in them.

An innovation of especial value has been the appointment of emergency teachers. In June, 1906, six regular teachers were appointed as such emergency teachers, their duties being "to take charge of classes in the temporary absence of the regular teacher, and to assist wherever they may be needed when not engaged in that work." The plan has been continued this year with marked success.

The superintendent of schools personally took charge of a class in the theory of education, which was attended by the principals of the city schools. The class was held once a week, and Bagley's *The Educative Process* was used as a text.

During the past year, the school nurses have done most earnest and effective work in guarding against the spread of contagious diseases.

Much attention has also been given to the examination of children with a view to detecting defective eyesight and hearing, and other abnormalities. Mr. George Leslie was employed as supervisor of this work.

The Child Labor Law has been vigorously enforced during the past year, the commissioner of labor, from his headquarters in San Francisco, sending his officers to all parts of the state, to personally superintend the enforcement of the law. Arrests of employers have in some cases been made, though in general those who employ children have fallen into the spirit of the law, and are careful to employ no child under fourteen years of age, and none under sixteen without permit. Mr. Ernest J. Lickley, principal of the Parental School, who has had charge of the issuing of labor permits, has been

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most conscientious and thorough in his efforts to prevent these permits being fraudulently obtained by children under the required age.

Public playgrounds are maintained at four of the schools, and are kept open and cared for by teachers of the respective schools after school hours and on Saturdays. During vacations, the Playground Commission has charge of the playgrounds, and does much for the children of the poorer districts.

In an effort to reach individual pupils who are working at more or less disadvantage in the grades, twenty-two ungraded classes have been established and are maintained as centers, to which boys and girls needing individual teaching and discipline may be sent. This work is under the efficient management of Mr. Bettinger, assistant superintendent of schools, who has given many years of study to the problems affecting child-life.

In addition to the twenty-two special ungraded rooms, there are four special classes for truants. These special schools are placed in charge of young men whose aim in management is to make the school life of the boys as far as possible like real life outside of school, the theory being that if

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school is made like life, boys will like to go to school for the same reason that they like to live. The theory and plan work so well that the percentage of attendance in these schools averages 99 as against 94 in the regular graded classes.

The board of education maintains a school in the Juvenile Detention Home. This school affords instruction for boys whose cases are pending in the Juvenile Court. A Parental School building is, however, now in process of erection. The buildings are located on a tract of land consisting of eleven acres, and when the plant is finished, it will be the most completely equipped school of its kind in the West. To this school will be sent, by the superintendent of city schools, persistent truants only. The methods employed in this school will be almost entirely remedial, rather than preventive.

The schools of Washington occupy 150 public buildings and additional rented quarters, involving current annual expenditures of \$27,500. Nearly ten thousand first- and second-grade children are on half-time.

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The question of free meals for school children, raised this last year in New York, is being widely and vitally considered. The *Economic Review* of London gives an article in its last number to the problem, treating it, as might be expected from a broader philosophic point of view. The author sees in the demand a reaction against nineteenth-century individualism.

He is not prepared to say how far this reaction may lead but thinks free clothing and even more direct participation in the child's support on the part of the state may be the outcome—an outcome to which he has no great objection.

Several interesting facts concerning the history of the high school are brought out by an article in the *Journal of Education*, December 26, 1907, by Mr. W. E. Hatch. Seventy-five years ago, he says, there were but three high schools in the country. At the close of the Civil War there were about 150, while today there are over 7,000. Thus the high school is an exceedingly modern institution, with curricula broader than those of many colleges of even thirty years ago.

And now the Denver Board of Education has taken action on the subject of fraternities. It has issued a letter debarring from the privileges of the high school, "except those of the classroom and that of receiving a diploma," all students who join fraternities after the issuing of the letter, and all present members who do not give up their membership before the beginning of the next school year. This letter is published in the *Journal of Education* for December 19.

Several experiments in more flexible grading of schools are being tried in American cities. Worcester, St. Louis, Elizabeth, N. J., are all mentioned in the December number of *Education* as having made advance along this line. Cambridge has for thirteen years classified its grammar schools on a very flexible plan, with the result that 7 per cent. completed the course in four years, while only 15 per cent. used as many as seven years for the work. A year's trial of flexible grading in the Lawrence High School has resulted in reducing the number of failures at the end of the first half-year over 50 per cent. What is even more remarkable, while the pupils in the fast classes cover much more ground than hitherto, the pupils in the slow classes cover about as much as before and do it better.

For over a year a committee has been engaged in investigating the health of girls in secondary schools in London, and the report is commented on in the December number of the *School World*. About 15 per cent. were below

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the average nutrition, and 24 per cent. were anaemic. The most striking fact seemed to be the ignorance of the ordinary elementary rules of health.

The *Craftsman* for January contains an account of an industrial training-school for deaf mutes in New York. Its aim is to give children, handicapped both by poverty and natural defect, the power to become self-supporting citizens. Many varieties of work are given in an attempt to bring out the individual talent of children who have so much less than the normal opportunity for self-expression and efficient work.

The *Outlook* describes an analogous work for blind children founded two or three years ago on East 59th Street, New York. Not only are the blind taught remunerative industries and given remunerative employment, but scientific investigations are being carried on to ascertain the causes of blindness and to devise, if possible, preventive measures.

Not the dropping of Latin, but a thorough revision of the Latin now given in secondary schools is the course recommended by E. A. Hecker in the *Educational Review* for December. He adds a scathing criticism of the present authors read, asking whether a German teacher would devote his entire second year to the campaigns of Frederick the Great, as the Latin teach-

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ers do to Caesar. He recommends a more varied course and a more interesting choice of literature as a partial solution of the problem.

The Southern Education Association, which held its annual meeting at the close of December, unanimously adopted resolutions favoring thorough elementary education for the negro, but recommending that in secondary schools emphasis be laid on industrial training. They also favor, on practical psychological grounds, the providing of negro teachers for the negro schools, which are to be segregated and given a different kind of training. The principle may be correct; it is too soon to decide to what abuses and unjust discriminations the practice may lend itself.

A special committee of the New York Board of Education is investigating corporal punishment. They have found a strong feeling among teachers of that city in favor of its revival. Only nine of the thirty-nine largest cities of the country, says the *Springfield Republican*, forbid flogging. They are, New York, Chicago, Baltimore, Jersey City, Louisville, Newark, Charleston, Syracuse, and Toledo.

Ambassador Reid's address in December to the New York Teachers' Association is causing some comment, largely adverse in character. He holds

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that our schools do not inculcate reverence for authority and obedience to law as do the English schools.

A protest on behalf of "men's rights" is the latest thing by Dr. G. Stanley Hall in an address in Des Moines before a state teachers' convention. "More men in the schools is the need," he declares. "The men already there are becoming feminized by lack of contact with other men."

The Western Railway Club of Chicago listened on December 18 to a paper by R. T. Crane, a millionaire manufacturer who has established several courses in manual training in the grade schools of Chicago. He feels that the technical training, so-called, does not give the desired result. "Four years in the shop is the training they need." Beyond this, "a good common-school training and a little intelligence will solve any problem arising in the factory."

San Antonio, Tex., has developed in its public schools a system of school gardens which W. T. Carter of the United States Department of Agriculture pronounces one of the finest in the country. Their produce vied at the recent San Antonio international fair with that displayed by professional gardeners. Texas is an essentially agricultural state, and the children are naturally proud of their achievements.

The plan of a nine-years' elementary course, beginning at the age of five, seems to have failed at Worcester. According to the *Springfield Republican* the special committee on curriculum recommends a change to the eight-years' course in vogue elsewhere, beginning at the age of six.

The National Congress of Mothers will hold an International Congress in Washington, D. C., March 10-17, 1898. The subject to be considered is "The Welfare of the Child." Among the speakers announced on the advance outline programme are President Roosevelt, Commissioner Brown, Hon. Charles P. Neill, Hon. Harvey W. Wiley, Hon. Ben B. Lindsey, and Dr. Luther H. Gulick.

Even in our progressive age there are not lacking extreme reactionaries in the matter of education. Bishop Canevin of Pittsburg, so says the *Advance*, has issued a letter to the parents and guardians of his diocese, forbidding them "under pain of mortal sin to send their children to any non-Catholic school, and confessors are forbidden to absolve those who do not obey."

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The *Outlook* reports a recent decision of the Supreme Court to the effect that the state has power to compel its railways to carry school children to and from school at half price. This decision was given, with slightly different reasons, by both the highest court of Massachusetts and by the Supreme Court. They declared that the discrimination was not an arbitrary one but was in pursuance of the long-established policy of the state to further education. The claim of the street railway at Attleboro, where the case arose, that the reduction of fares made them operate their roads at a loss, was denied by the courts on the ground that children took up less room and used the cars at other than their busiest season.

Great progress has been made in North Carolina in education during the past four years. A systematic campaign was organized in 1902, and since then according to the *North Carolina Journal of Education*, "the school fund has been nearly doubled, and modern schoolhouses have been erected at the rate of one per day."

There seem to be special problems in Sweden arising from conflict of public and private school interest, according to a report made to the English Board of Education by J. S. Thornton and reported in the *School World*. The primary schools are worked by the state, and in them the women teachers are much better paid than those in secondary schools, which are only subsidized by the state. Discontent from this and other causes is only natural.

The *Teacher's Magazine* for February contains the first of a series of articles descriptive of folk-dances, as they are now being given in New York public schools and in many other schools scattered over the country. Interest in such dances and in various forms of physical development and expression seems to be spreading.

Of the 1,125 men who during the year applied to the London Antisuicide Bureau of the Salvation Army, according to an abstract of General Booth's report in the *London Daily Chronicle*, a large majority had had a superior education, which unfitted rather than qualified them for the kind of work within their reach.

Legal regulation of minimum salaries for teachers occurs most in those countries which are farthest advanced in education. So says an article in the *Educational Review* for January, dealing with the question of such regulation both in this country and abroad. France and Germany are mentioned

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as places in which salaries are thus regulated. In this country there is a legal minimum salary in about a dozen states, and the question is being agitated in about a dozen more.

Industrial schools in Germany are in a rather high state of development, says A. S. Draper, commissioner of education of New York. The partial list of trades he mentions, as given in the *Springfield Republican*, is most imposing, and seems to include almost every variety of occupation. In some cases the state supports these schools, and in other cases they are partially or entirely in the hands of private organizations. But in every case the state and public opinion through the state give hearty indorsement to this type of education. The trades taught naturally vary somewhat with the neighborhood, being designed to develop local resources.

The salaries of the elementary teachers of the Chicago public schools have been increased from \$25 to \$100 a year each. The advance dates from January 1, 1908, and applies to about 4,600 teachers, and represents an increase in the payroll of approximately \$157,000. Teachers who have been receiving \$600 and \$625 a year will get a \$75 increase; those who have been

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receiving \$675 to \$775 a year will get a \$50 increase; and those with higher salary will get an increase of \$25 each.

More than 70 per cent. of the cities of more than 8,000 inhabitants in the United States have provided for some form of manual training or industrial arts in the public schools according to Professor Ballou, of the Cincinnati Technical High School.

Much attention is being given in Maryland to the organization of secondary education. A bill is being proposed for a state high-school fund for the purpose of aiding local high schools in small towns. The *Atlantic Educational Journal* mentions State Superintendent Stephens as the leader of the fight for the bill. It is naturally felt as a grievance that the appropriations now made to college education in that state are partly distributed among schools which no longer claim to be more than small private academies, while larger high schools in the same neighborhood receive no state assistance even when their need is greater.

The *Utah Educational Review* contains an article on students' organizations in the high school, suggesting that fraternities originate in the natural

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adolescent tendency toward social life, and can be abolished, not by a mere edict, but by the encouragement of other social organizations, such as literary, athletic, and press societies and by the revival of class spirit and tradition.

The ruling of the English Board of Education that "when only two foreign languages are taught in a school, one must be Latin," has had a most disheartening effect on the study of German, as French maintains its traditional place as the second language. A reconsideration of this ruling has been suggested. The *Educational News* reports that in the recent preliminary examinations in Scotch universities only 66 candidates presented themselves in German and only 11 passed, as against 387 candidates and 177 passing in French. This shows a great discrepancy, not only in the number of candidates, but also in the kind of training received by those who do apply.

At the sixty-third annual meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, held at the Institute of Technology, Boston, November 29, the subject of "The Financial Remuneration of the Teacher" was opened by President Eliot of Harvard. He presented the cause of the teacher in a somewhat new light, according to the *Springfield Republican*, and compared the work of the public-school teacher with that of a college professor, saying that the maximum salary for the public-school teacher should be the same as the maximum salary of a college professor in the same locality. The public school teachers, he said, should start on a lower salary than they do now, but that the salary should be graded as is that of the college instructor, finally reaching the maximum, which in Boston, he said, would be \$5,500. President Eliot's views were warmly indorsed by the whole gathering.

NOTES AND NEWS

From Pittsburgh comes an idea which is worthy of general adoption. The director of the high schools, Mr. Edward Rynearson, with his colleagues the heads of departments of the high school, has issued a circular of information for the parents of the pupils in the seventh and eighth grades which is admirably adapted to inform parents of the reasons for sending their children to the high school, and by its artistic appearance to interest them from the start in the institution. Some general facts with regard to the value of high-school education, based upon statistics and investigations, are followed by specific information concerning the Pittsburgh high school and its various courses. The Committee on High Schools has issued a little booklet of 26 pages in a highly artistic form, and we should anticipate that many parents who are more or less in doubt as to their children's work would be at least enough impressed so that they would desire further counsel if they were at all uncertain as to the value of the high-school course.

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The Physics Club of New York, at its regular meeting held March 7, 1908, unanimously adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, that a uniform course in physics for all schools is both undesirable and unattainable. We therefore recommend:

1. That syllabi should deal with the barest outline of general principles, leaving each teacher free to fill up the course according to his best judgment.
2. That examinations for college entrance should be confined to the general principles specified in the syllabus, and that a teacher's certificate should be accepted for other material. This might well take the form of a rather full statement of the work done.

NOTES AND NEWS

State secondary education for girls has only been given in France for about twenty-five years, says an article in the *Educational Review*. The course comprises five years of work, from the age of twelve to seventeen. The curriculum, while not as broad as the coeducational high schools of our country, has so much more content than the old convent system of education that it fought for a long time with the prejudice against "pedantic" women. Snobbishness counted more than anything else against the new schools. Many anticlerical politicians scorned the state schools for their own daughters, and chose a convent education for them for social reasons. But the number of pupils has grown from 1,200 in 1881 to 34,262 in 1907.

The *Educational Review* contains a comparative study of minimum salary legislation. This legislation sometimes fixes a single minimum, sometimes a series of minimums. In the latter case the minimums may be based on grades of position and work, as in New York, or on grades of qualification, as in Indiana. The author points out the dangers of the latter method. It sometimes leads to a deliberate choice of less qualified teachers, so that State Superintendent Cotton of Indiana remarks: "Many teachers request county superintendents to lower grades of licenses, so the trustees will give them employment." The same danger is found in basing salaries rigidly on the time of service. It promotes a tendency to discharge the more expensive teachers.

Aesthetic development is the only possible ground for a study of the classics in these days, says Ivy Kellerman in the *Educational Review*. We no longer get our science and philosophy from the Greeks. Moreover, we can gain a better acquaintance with Hellenism from English treatises and translations than the average person gains from the originals. The question then remains, how much aesthetic development the usual course in the classics furnishes.

The Pittsburg method of stimulating high-school attendance is to send a beautiful little pamphlet of twenty-six pages, issued by the principal and the heads of departments, to the parents of seventh- and eighth-grade children. When one considers the absolute ignorance of high-school opportunities which often prevails, especially among the foreign population, this method would seem to contain a valuable suggestion.

"We have tended to proceed on the assumption," says President Roosevelt in his address to the Washington educational meeting, "that the educational man was to be educated away from and not toward labor. I trust that more and more our schools will train toward the farm and the workshop."

In view of the opposition often expressed by labor unions to trade schools, it is pleasant to learn of a hearty indorsement of such schools by the Society of Master Painters and Decorators in Massachusetts. Still

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

better is the fact that they passed a resolution favoring the supervision of such schools by the state industrial commission and asking no hand in the matter for themselves.

The Board of Education in England has issued statistics on the teaching of Latin in secondary schools. In any state-aided secondary school in which two languages other than English are taught, one is to be Latin. Yet the amount of emphasis and specialization on this language is seen to be steadily decreasing. The board urges that no boy begin Latin before the age of ten, and without a thorough grounding in English.

One of the most urgent questions in English secondary education is, according to M. E. Sadler in *Indian Education*, the reform of the curriculum in the preparatory schools which teach boys of 10 to 14 years of age. This curriculum is at present spoiled by undue specialization in the classics. At the last conference the head-masters of Eton and Winchester laid the blame for this on the antiquated character of entrance requirements at the great

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public schools and proposed a resolution for lowering the standard of the Greek requirement. But "lowering of standards" never has a popular sound, and the motion was rejected.

"With the establishment of the chair of Secondary Education, first in Georgia and later in six other state universities, has begun a new era in high-school development in the South." The *Southern Educational Review* contains an account of the kind of work attempted by this department. Special courses of study are given to train department heads for high schools, and these courses seem to be quite successful. The professor of secondary education also aims to establish relations with nearby high schools through systems of extension lectures given by different professors of the university.

A collection of letters on the subject of university inspection of high schools appears in the *Southern Educational Review*. All mention the decided advance in secondary education produced by the possibility of becoming accredited to good universities. Added to this some note the effect on

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the universities themselves, in showing the necessary limitations of the high school and in inducing more reasonable entrance regulations.

Ingenious use of native material is shown by the Japanese use of bamboo in place of the more expensive glass-tubing, for much of the apparatus used in the teaching of physics.

The comparative wage-earning of the graduates of elementary grades, high schools, and colleges are, according to Dr. Harris, U. S. commissioner of education in the proportion of 1, 2, and 3.

A study of current events in the high school is recommended most strongly in an article in the *Teacher's Journal*. The author thinks it would "break down the isolation of the school," and enrich scholastic work along geographical, sociological, and civic lines, besides teaching the power of organizing current reading. He would not, however, have it made an additional subject in the curriculum, but taught in connection with other work.

NOTES AND NEWS

The Forty-sixth Convention of the National Education Association will take place in Cleveland, Ohio, June 29 to July 3. The general sessions will be held in the auditorium of the new Hippodrome. The opening address, "Report of Educational Progress for the Year," will be given June 29 by Charles F. Thwing, President of the Western Reserve University.

During the convention of the National Education Association the local library will make an exhibition of its various methods of distribution, its bulletins and printed matter, and will also publish a pamphlet describing in some detail the work for the children. The Library Department of the N. E. A. will hold its sessions in Woodland Branch Library. All resources of the libraries, and they are many and valuable, are at the service of the schools, in fact for them programmes are arranged, bulletins issued, lectures given, researches made and needs anticipated.

Frederic C. Howe, well-known writer on civic and social problems, author of *The City* and *The American City*, has recently stated that Cleveland has become much such a laboratory to those interested in social problems as the city of Glasgow is to those who want to study municipal ownership.

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The special social problem Cleveland is solving through Dr. Harris R. Cooley, director of charities and corrections, is the city's attitude toward its dependent classes. The laboratory where this great experiment is being tried out is known as the Cleveland Farm Colony. It is a nineteen-hundred acre farm, which lies back ten miles from the lake, overlooking the city and commanding a view of Lake Erie.

Here it has been designed to place in a group arrangement, not unlike the city's group plan for its public buildings, the city infirmary, with all its kitchens, dormitories, workshops, and cottages; in another section, the work-house group; and far removed, in a third direction, the city tuberculosis hospital. Broad boulevards and avenues will connect these various settlements, with plenty of reservation for recreation and educational purposes.

The farm, which will be worked by the prisoners, will supply all the city institutions with milk and fresh vegetables. All this is in its practical working out, for the experiment has passed far beyond its early stages, may be seen by those visitors to the National Education Association Convention, in Cleveland, June 29 to July 3, who are interested in sociological questions.

Boyville, Cleveland's experiment station for boys, is a farm of 285 acres, where, since 1902, preventive measures have been going forward, by supplying delinquent boys with congenial work and healthful surroundings.

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six high schools, twelve manual-training and one normal-training school, one school for boys, and one for the deaf. In the autumn the new Technical High School will open its doors.

The aesthetic side of the child is being reached by the co-operation of the Home Gardening Association, which has established school gardening as a feature of the year's work. The school buildings now stand surrounded by lawns and gardens instead of gaunt and forbidding in a waste of hard-packed earth.

This will be the second year of a training garden in which seventy-five boys, chosen for adaptability to this work, will each have a small plot of ground to cultivate, thereby fostering tastes, which, it is hoped, will develop into a study of horticulture, agriculture, or forestry. Experiment has found that gardening has been of distinct assistance to backward, defective or partially crippled children, who, mentally and physically, have improved under its sound and healthful discipline.

An exhibition of photographs and literature pertaining to the work of this association will be held at Goodrich House (Social Settlement) during the days of the convention, where members of the society will be in charge and direct visitors to the various most interesting gardens of the children. A place on the educational programme in the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education has been granted to the discussion of school gardens.

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The Following Articles Will Appear in the September and October Numbers of the School Review.

"What Should Be Emphasized in High School Algebra?" By H. E. SLAUGHT, Associate Professor of Mathematics in The University of Chicago.

"Greek or Latin for Admission to College?" By J. H. T. MAIN, President of Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.

"The Relation of the High School Course to Life." By B. B. WILSON.

"The Scientific Basis of High-School Methods." By CHARLES DEGARMO, Professor of Education in Cornell University.

"A View of German Pedagogy for the Benefit of Foreigners." Concluding article. By WILHELM MÜNCH, Professor of Pedagogy in the University of Berlin.

"The Humanizing of Study." By W. H. P. FAUNCE, President of Brown University.

"Elective Subjects in the High-School Curriculum." By W. C. BAGLEY, Professor of Pedagogy in the University of Illinois.

"The Reform of College Entrance Examinations in Latin." By CHARLES KNAPP, Professor of Latin in Barnard College.

"A Roman Dinner." By J. RALEIGH NELSON, Professor of Latin in Lewis Institute, Chicago.

NOTES AND NEWS

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education has issued its Bulletin No. 5, consisting of the first part of the proceedings of the annual meeting held in Chicago.

The co-operation between the University of Cincinnati and some of the manufacturers of that city is the subject of a paper by Professor H. Schneider, dean of the College of Engineering. He said in part: "The work contemplates that the young man taking it shall work alternate weeks in shops in the city and in the university. There are about seventy-five of these young men with us now, and this week, for instance, about half are in the shops and half are in the university. Next week they will shift, those at the university this week will go to the shops, and those at the shops will come to the university. . . . These young men are paid for their shop work on a scale of wages which begins at the rate of ten cents an hour and increases at the rate of a cent an hour every six months. They are paid only

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for the time in the shop, every alternate week during the school year and every week in the summer, except the two weeks' vacation. A number of shops, however, find these men so efficient that they are now paying them for the week they are at the university."

This bulletin also contains the address of Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, at that time President of the Society, and Dr. Eliot's speech, which has been the subject of much discussion among educators. Previous bulletins of the society were devoted to a "Symposium on Industrial Education," a "Bibliography on Industrial Education," and a study of "Industrial Education for Women." Future bulletins will include the balance of the proceedings of the Chicago meeting and the reports of the various committees which are investigating special phases of industrial education, such as the boot and shoe industry, textiles, building trades, machine trades, industrial training for girls and boys from fourteen to sixteen, public technical schools, and public evening industrial schools.

An amended bond issue in San Francisco provides \$5,000,000 for public-school buildings. Three new high schools are being rushed to completion as

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fast as possible. Special precautions against fire are being taken, the exits being provided with doors that swing both ways. When all the buildings provided for by the bond issue have been completed, San Francisco expects to have the most perfect system in the United States.

Fourteen hundred school children of Humboldt County, California, have sent a petition to the United States government asking that the red-wood groves be protected, and giving reasons based on their nature-study.

The legislature of New York is considering a bill for the pensioning of teachers in the normal schools and other educational institutions conducted under the authority of the state. Experience has shown that the cities offering pensions have been drawing away teachers from the state institutions.

A man in Andover, Mass., left \$500 for the support of an old-fashioned spelling bee in his native town. Contestants are to be between the ages of ten and eighteen. The annual match is to be conducted at the close of the winter term and is under the care of the school committee of the town.

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"There is not one colored person out of every two thousand population that ever enters the high school," says the *Popular Science Monthly* for May. Educational appropriations in the south are very small as compared with those of richer parts of the country. The average expenditure in the United States for education is \$21.38 per capita; in Alabama and the Carolinas it is \$4.50. The illiteracy among the whites of the south is 12.2 per cent., as against 2.8 per cent. in northern and western states. And the condition of the negro is much worse. Professor Hancock, the author of the article, makes these facts the basis of a plea for national educational provision for the negro. The south is too poor to manage the matter adequately, he maintains, and the large gifts made to education are usually in the north.

"Entrance requirements in the leading colleges have become excessive," says President Seelye, of Vassar, in his annual report. Fifty years ago the movement to increase the requirements was in the right direction. Now it induces superficial work in the preparatory schools and makes higher education less accessible to the poorer classes. It also interferes seriously with the normal physical development of high-school pupils. "In the last thirty-five years," adds President Seelye, "Smith's entrance requirements have increased 150 per cent. in geometry, have been doubled in English and in history, and several new subjects have been added. Other colleges have had a similar increase."

"Why Teaching Repels Men" is the title of a recent article in the *Educational Review*. It is not a question of salary, thinks the author, for professionally fitted men teachers start with a salary averaging higher than those of other professions. It is rather on account of the loss of liberty in a hireling occupation, and the attitude of the average community toward men who teach. The author also thinks that teaching has a bad effect on a man's manners, because he is so often surrounded by people over whom he has authority. The entire article is strikingly severe on the status of teaching as a profession.

Harrisburg, Pa., has come out with a new retirement-fund scheme. One interesting feature of it is that teachers suddenly incapacitated for work, as by blindness, for instance, can retire at once on full annuity, regardless of age or length of service.

NOTES AND NEWS

The next meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association will take place in Chicago instead of in Oklahoma City, February 23, 24, and 25, 1909, owing to the recent disastrous fire in Oklahoma City.

At the meeting of the Secondary School Section of the National Education Association at Cleveland the following resolution was introduced by Mr. E. W. Lytle, high-school inspector of the state of New York. The resolution was passed unanimously and is of such significance that we are glad to present it in these pages.

Mr. President: It became apparent from the discussions yesterday that the high-school principals here assembled strongly favor the cosmopolitan rather than the differentiated high school. The arguments advanced were founded not on theory simply, but on facts and thoughtful experience. Fundamentally our high schools are political, moral, and social agencies. Incidentally they should train for vocation; but their largest function is training for life. Separation into technical, business, and preparatory high schools inevitably encourages class distinctions, causes loss of social sympathy, and is not conducive to good scholarship. Moreover differentiated schools make it far more difficult to correct mistakes, while differentiated courses render such corrections easy. Differentiated high schools also cause great loss of the student's time in travel to and fro. In view of these considerations, I have been asked by many principals to introduce the following resolution:

Be it resolved, That it is the sense of the Secondary Teachers of the National Education Association that the building of differentiated high schools should be discouraged and that the introduction of differentiated courses in all large high schools should be encouraged.

A new journal entitled *School Hygiene* has been launched by the American School Hygiene Association, edited by Dr. George S. C. Badger, and published by Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, Mass. The introductory editorial announces that the journal "represents an effort to place before the public a report of progress in the movement to secure improved school conditions for children and to awaken public interest in the importance of the subject." The initial number includes brief and pithy articles on "The Prevention of Tuberculosis among School Children," "Eyestrain in School Children," "The Ultimate Demands of School Hygiene," "Playground Legislation," "The Education of the Public in Scientific Medicine," "An Open Letter from Dr. Jessen, Strassburg, Germany" (on the prevalence of diseased teeth), and "School Clinics."

"International Education" keeps cropping up in new forms. Just now it is proposed to interchange teachers between the secondary schools of this

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country and those of Germany, under the management, on this side of the water, of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. (Commissioner Brown's report in the *World's Work*, July.)

The new type of interest in rural schools is, according to Commissioner Brown, one of the typical manifestations of educational advance. The effort to make a really new type of rural education is represented by the establishment of agricultural high schools in Wisconsin, Georgia, and Michigan; by the introduction in Congress of the Davis Bill and the Burkett Bill, for national aid in education of this kind, and by numerous other special efforts in various parts of this country.

How comparatively recent is the international interest in many phases of educational work which are now attracting much attention is shown by a brief survey of the announcements of several conventions recently held. The Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education proclaims the fact that its birth was less than two years ago; the interests of School Hygiene held their second international congress in 1907; the third International Congress for the Advancement of Drawing and Art Teaching was held in August

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NOTES AND NEWS

of this year. All of these movements and several other less important ones, date from very recent times. Especially is the desire for international exchange of opinion a recent one.

The normal schools of the Middle West would appear to be the strongholds of simplified spelling. Statistics are to be found in the statements of Mr. Charles Scott, secretary of the Board of Simplified Spelling. The *New York Times* quotes him as saying that normal schools in Illinois and Iowa will send forth in the next year some four thousand graduates who will teach the modified forms.

"Twenty-two per cent. as the average number of failures" is the result of an investigation of sixteen representative high schools of the Middle West, made by H. E. Kratz. A greater use of individual instruction is the only solution he sees. Only so can bad habits of study be corrected. "This individual instruction, as an occasional supplement to class instruction, has no formal recognition in school hours," and conscientious teachers who appreciate its value are forced to devote time and strength outside the school to the assistance of slow or belated pupils. A chance for more of

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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

this work should be given and in such a way that the teacher need not draw on her own generosity for it.

"Negro Education and the Nation" is the title of an article by Booker T. Washington in the *New England Journal of Education* (July 16). "Some people are fond of asserting that education as a force to uplift the negro is a failure." Education has never been tried. "Two years ago 1,400,000 children of my race of school age were not even enrolled in public schools." Furthermore, "on the basis of school population, each child in the North had spent upon him last year for teaching purposes about \$5; each negro child in the South has spent upon him fifty cents."

The *Popular Science Monthly* for July contains a discussion of the high-school course, by President Jordan of Stanford University. The curriculum of the high school should, he says, be determined by those schools themselves and for their own best development. Colleges and universities have a right to demand that whatever foundation work has been given shall have been given with thoroughness, but "for them to specify certain classes of subjects regardless of the real interests of the secondary schools and their pupils is a species of impertinence which only tradition justifies." Dr. Jordan believes that "the study of words fills too large a part of our secondary schools." He would emphasize three things: thorough study of the realities of nature, "motor-training" through manual work, and the mastery of English.

The *Springfield Republican* reports twenty-five women in Kansas as principals of high schools.

No person over fifty years of age will hereafter be admitted as teacher in the Chicago public schools. This ruling was passed by a majority vote of twelve to four by the board.

The effect of examination-strain on high-school pupils was strikingly shown among the candidates for positions in New York City public schools. Many of these were young people just out of high school. In a physical examination held just after the final examinations of the schools, 7 per cent. of all applicants were rejected as liable to become burdens on the pay-roll within a few years. The Board of Education then required the physical examination to be made before the school finals and the results were decidedly better. Dr. Elizabeth Jarrett, the medical examiner, concludes, in the *New York Medical Record*, that "a strain of even a few weeks may produce in these young people a temporary derangement, which in a small percentage of the candidates has paved the way for a permanent injury to a vital organ."

NOTES AND NEWS

Graduates of the University of Leipzig! The University of Leipzig is about to celebrate its five-hundredth anniversary. Many graduates of Leipzig are desirous of uniting in some way to show their appreciation of the work done there, and all graduates are requested to send their addresses to Principal J. P. Cushing, the High School, New Haven, Conn.

The Northern Illinois Teachers' Association, at its meeting in Joliet, November 6 and 7, centers attention upon the topic of "Moral and Religious Education in the Public Schools." Professors Coe of Northwestern, Starbuck of Iowa, Cook of DeKalb, and Soares of Chicago speak at the general session Friday afternoon; President Judson of Chicago and State Superintendent Blair, Friday evening; Professors Bagley of Illinois and Votaw of Chicago, Saturday morning. Besides this central topic the following resolution will be discussed Saturday morning:

Resolved, That the minimum annual wages of all qualified teachers in the public schools of Illinois should, in no event, nor under any circumstances, be less than \$365.00, and that whenever a school district by taxing itself to the limit authorized by law is unable to pay this amount, the deficit should be supplied by the state or the school district annexed to another district in which the payment of a minimum wage as large as the one specified in this resolution can be paid.

At the section meetings Friday afternoon the "Function and Autonomy of the High School with Relation to the Elementary School and to the College," will be considered by Superintendent Bryan of St. Louis, Professors McMurry and Libby of DeKalb and Northwestern, Principals Smith and Loomis of Harvey and Chicago, and President Lord of Charleston.

The next annual meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education will be held in Atlanta, Ga., November 19, 20, and 21.

Readers of the *Review* doubtless have learned through the daily press of the arrangements through the National Civic Federation by Mr. Alfred Mosely for the visit of teachers to England. The secretary of the Federation, Mr. Roland P. Falkner, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York, has issued a circular giving an account of the preparations made in England, and providing useful directions. The prominence of those who are co-operating in the movement makes it certain that extraordinary opportunities will be offered to observe the educational work of England, as well as to see the things which every American deserves to see in the mother country. We are happy to announce that Mr. H. E. Coblentz, of Milwaukee, who is so well known to our readers for his discriminating book reviews, will write a series of articles for us upon his observations.

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

School authorities dealing with the question of high-school fraternities will be interested in the decision of Judge Windes, of Chicago. The Board of Education had passed a vote abolishing the fraternities. A pupil in the Hyde Park high school, who refused to sign a pledge to withdraw from a society, filed a petition for a mandatory writ to compel the school board to reinstate him without his having to give up his allegiance to his fraternity. The school board maintained that the existence of the fraternities was an open rebellion against regulations. The court denied the writ, thus sustaining the board.

The present year has been marked by the number of international congresses in which the universities, the learned societies, and the government of the United States are to participate. Among these are the conference of the Parents' National Educational Union in Bristol, England, last June, the conference for the Advancement of Drawing and Art Teaching in London in August, an International Moral Education Congress in London in September, an International Congress on Instruction in Domestic Economy and Home Industries at Fribourg, Switzerland, in September.

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Most interesting of all in certain respects is the First Pan-American Scientific Congress which will meet at Santiago, Chile. This was at first announced for December 1st, but has been postponed until the holiday season (December 25-January 8) to give a better opportunity for teachers to attend. Many institutions from the United States, as well as the government, will send representatives. Such a congress can hardly fail to be an important agency in promoting better understanding and mutual respect between all American peoples.

Gifts to higher education in the United States last year amounted to \$23,127,762. Dr. Wallace Buttrick, secretary of the Boston Board of Education, has compiled a complete statement of such gifts, from letters received from the heads of all institutions of collegiate rank. Illinois leads with over four million dollars, most of which is, however, due to large gifts to The University of Chicago.

Doubt concerning the desirability of trade schools come chiefly from the representatives of organized labor who fear that the public trade schools will flood the labor market and increase the sharpness of competition for work. But, as Robert A. Woods observes, "it is inconceivable that as a class school-trained workmen should not be even more jealous than others of all unreasonable encroachments upon their wage standard, and that they should not apply their additional training to the development of even more effective forms of labor organization than now exist."

"Every year the advantages of well-ordered certificates over examinations become apparent" says a report from Smith College in the *Educational Review* (June). "The judgment of conscientious and competent teachers is less likely to err than the judgment formed from hurriedly written examinations."

The College Entrance Examination Board, founded in 1900, has grown in the past eight years to include practically every college and secondary school in the United States. The *Literary Digest* (July 25) contains an account of the history of this board. It was organized in a meeting at Columbia University and was designed to enable students to take entrance examinations for a co-operating group of colleges, without the necessity of going to the college itself for the purpose. Fifteen colleges were represented the first year, from the Middle States and Maryland. Examinations were held in sixty-seven places in the United States and two in Europe. With the second year the Board invited the New England colleges to join it. By 1907 the number of schools represented had reached 712. The Board has done much toward equalizing standards of admission throughout the country. It has, however, no power actually to admit a student to a college. Each institution inspects the candidate's certificate and passes in detail upon the subjects therein included.

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

The question of why young men go to college is interesting as showing the educational ideals given in secondary education. Wesleyan University has recently made a careful study of the future occupations of its undergraduates. Twenty-five per cent. enter the freshman class without the least idea of what they are going to do with their college course, moved only by a desire for a higher level of culture. Twenty per cent. of those examined expected to enter commercial pursuits, and only 15 per cent. expected to teach. Recent report from Princeton confirms this analysis of the changing constituency of the colleges. The proportion of the class of 1902 that went into business was three times the proportion in the class of 1892, while 30 per cent. of all the living alumni are in business.

The act making appropriations for legislature, executive, and judicial expenses of the government for the year ending June 30, 1909, which includes the appropriations for the United States Bureau of Education, provided for an increase of only \$1,250 over the amount for the current year. The additional amount includes an increase of \$1,000 in the salary of the commissioner of education, making it \$4,500 per annum; also an increase of \$250 in the appropriation for books for the library current educational periodicals, other current publications, and completing valuable sets of periodicals, making the amount available for such purposes, \$500. No appropriation whatsoever was made for the investigation of special educational problems by the Bureau of Education, for which purpose the secretary of the interior strongly requested an appropriation of \$40,000.

A great advance in industrial education has been made in the bill which by Governor Hughes's sanction has become law in New York. It authorizes the establishment by any city of general and special industrial schools. The former are to be open to boys over fourteen, the latter to boys over sixteen who have completed the grammar grades or the first industrial course. The state is to contribute \$500 a year for the support of every school organized under the act, if only one teacher is employed and the number of pupils does not exceed twenty-five. For each additional teacher the state contributes \$200 more.

Americans have more knowledge of the English language than the English themselves, says Professor Skeat, the well-known philologist, in a despatch to the *New York Sun*. Training in the English language is carried on with much greater strictness in America, phonetics are taken seriously, and attention is paid to pronunciation. The English schools treat Latin and Greek as of dominant importance, and the pupil is apt to be quite ignorant of his own language. This rather startling admission on the part of a Cambridge professor was called forth in defense of a similar statement by Professor Brandt of Berlin.

NOTES AND NEWS

With our American traditions of separate church and state, it is a somewhat novel experience to read the fiery arguments now being published in England against a proposed secularization of the schools. The *Fortnightly Review* (for May) contains such a discussion. Statistics are given to prove the increase in juvenile criminality in countries where religion is not taught in the school; France and the United States are prominent examples. The article gives an extended comparison between Victoria and New South Wales, "the leading states of Australasia and approximately equal in climatic conditions." Victoria has secular education; in it the increase of crime has outstripped the growth of population 6 per cent. in the last four years. New South Wales has religious instruction and although it began as a penal colony, and twenty years ago had nearly twice as many crimes as Victoria,

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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

it is now the better colony of the two, as shown by the most recent statistics. All these facts must make us pause before assuming that America has solved forever the questions of education over which England is struggling.

New York is to undertake the education of the blind in her regular public schools, as determined early last summer. Classes are to be established in certain centrally located schools, each to be made up of about a dozen blind children and four or five who can see. The same subjects are to be taught as are taught normal children. This plan involves the printing of the present textbooks in raised letters.

Professor H. K. Wolfe, of the University of Nebraska offers free instruction in the philosophy of education to the teachers of that state. The prescribed reading for the course includes among other literature the *School Review*.

Commissioner Brown is endeavoring to bring out the *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education* at a considerably earlier date than has been usual. Vol. I went to the printer October 1, six months earlier than any

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previous report, and Vol. II it is hoped may go December 31. Certainly all school officers should co-operate to make this possible.

The Commissioner of Education is also seeking the co-operation of city superintendents in securing greater uniformity in city statistics. A form has been submitted as a basis for criticism, and it is hoped that standards may be worked out which will make intelligent and fair comparison of different cities possible.

One of the most interesting of the newer experiments is the Smith's Agricultural School and Northampton Institute of Technology which has opened this autumn. The following is taken from the *Springfield Republican*:

The school will provide training in agriculture, with a view to practicable and profitable farming; in household economy, with a view to efficient and enjoyable housekeeping and home-making, and in mechanic arts, as either a foundation for desirable apprenticeships in the cases of boys who enter at fourteen years, or as preparation for the work of journeymen or foremen in the cases of students more mature. A subordinate aim will be to prepare pupils who

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desire to go on to higher institutions devoted to agriculture or household arts, or to secure training at one of the state normal schools for teaching nature subjects. In all of the courses training for good citizenship and high character will receive attention.

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In the *Psychological Clinic* for October 15, Leonard P. Ayres, who is in charge of the backward-children investigation to be conducted by the Sage Foundation, makes a preliminary analysis of the factors responsible for the falling-off of attendance in successive grades. He shows the differences due respectively to death, to increase in population, to retardation, and to dropping out as pupils reach an age (thirteen, fourteen, fifteen) at which a large proportion will leave, no matter in what grade they may be. When these factors as determined by statistical methods are combined, they give very nearly the distribution actually found in typical cities.

In connection with a series of articles in the *New York Evening Post* on "How to Give Wisely," Duane Mowry, of the Milwaukee Board of School Directors, calls attention to needs of the schools, such as libraries, community free reading-rooms, popular lecture courses, decoration of school buildings and grounds, encouragement to teachers to grow intellectually by provisions for advance in salaries and larger place in the community as part of the social make-up.

To my mind, the common schools of the country, the great public-school system of the United States, offer the only complete opportunity for such a distribution of wealth. Here is a large and unworked field for human endeavor in a hundred different ways, and in as many localities, and where the conditions requiring the expenditure of wealth in the interest of good citizenship imperatively demand it.

W. H. Winch, in the *British Journal of Psychology*, in tests for transfer of improvement in memory of school children, found that children who received training in memorizing poetry made greater improvement in ability to memorize history (by rote) than children who were given training in doing sums.



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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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PUBLISHED MONTHLY EXCEPT IN JULY AND AUGUST

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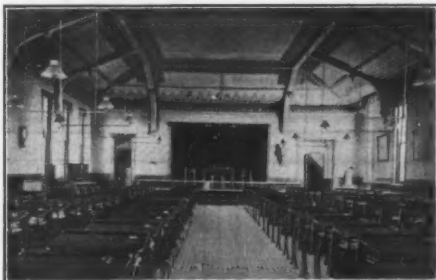
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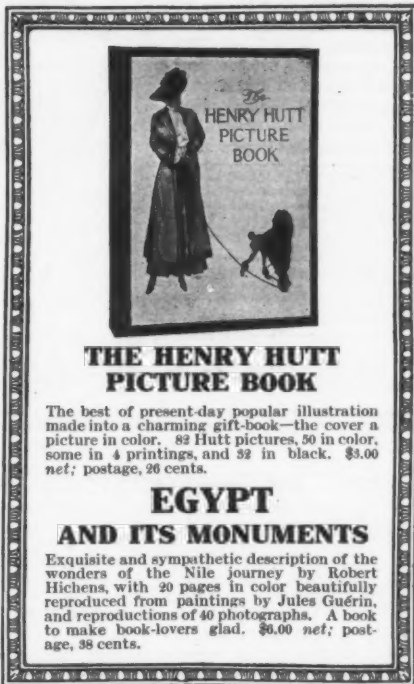
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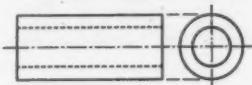
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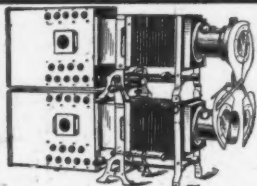


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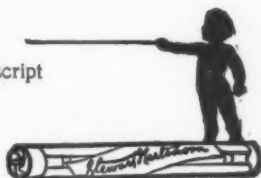
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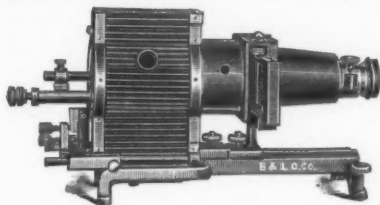
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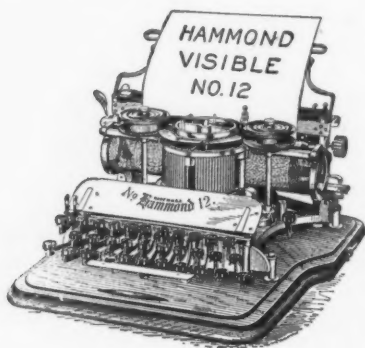
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